DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 148 841 TM 006 726

AUTHOR Duley, John; Gordon, Sheila

TITLE College-Sponsored Experiential Learning--A CAEL Handbook.

INSTITUTION Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning, Columbia, Md.
SPONS AGENCY Ford Foundation, New York, N.Y.; Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.; Lilly Endowment, Inc., Indianapolis, Ind.
PUB DATE 77
NOTE 73p.; For related document, see TM 006 734
AVAILABLE FROM Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning, American City Building, Suite 403, Columbia, Maryland 21044 ($6.00)

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 Plus Postage. HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS *College Faculty; College Students; Cooperative Education; *Cooperative Programs; Educational Objectives; *Guidelines; Higher Education; Informal Assessment; Internship Programs; Learning Experience; Performance Based Education; Practicum Supervision; Program Development; Program Evaluation; *Student Evaluation; *Student Placement; Work Experience; *Work Experience Programs
IDENTIFIERS *Experiential Learning

ABSTRACT

This handbook is designed for college faculty concerned with developing effective off-campus experiential learning programs, and with assessing the outcomes of these programs. The theoretical background of experiential learning is discussed, and the practical and implementation issues are emphasized: definition of educational objectives, development of work experience placement for students, and preparation of students for effective learning experiences. The methods of monitoring ongoing experiential learning programs, and of integrating these learning experiences into the overall college program are described. Cross-references to related materials also published by the Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning Project are included in the form of a check list. Lists of bibliographical references and related associations are appended. (Author/MV)

****
* Documents acquired by ERIC include many informal unpublished *
* materials not available from other sources. ERIC makes every effort *
* to obtain the best copy available. Nevertheless, items of marginal *
* reproducibility are often encountered and this affects the quality *
* of the microfiche and hardcopy reproductions ERIC makes available *
* via the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). EDRS is not *
* responsible for the quality of the original document. Reproductions *
* supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made from the original. *
****

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

CAEL

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC) AND USERS OF THE ERIC SYSTEM."

ED148841

TM006 726

cael

COLLEGE-SPONSORED EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING - A CAEL HANDBOOK

JOHN DULEY
SHEILA GORDON

COOPERATIVE ASSESSMENT OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

CAEL STEERING COMMITTEE / BOARD OF TRUSTEES

Morris T. Keeton *# CHAIRPERSON
Provost and Vice President
Antioch College

Richard J. Allen*
Director, Division of Arts & Sciences
The Johns Hopkins University Evening College

George Ayers*# SECRETARY effective 10/76
Vice President and Dean for Academic Affairs
Metropolitan State University

Barbara A. Barbato*#
Director of Contract Center for Individualized Study
Webster College

Neal R. Berte*#
President
Birmingham Southern College

James D. Brown, Jr.*#
President
Thomas A. Edison College

Arthur W. Chickering*#
Vice President for Policy Analysis and Evaluation
Empire State College

Hortense Dixon*
Vice President for Urban Programming
Texas Southern University

John S. Duley*#
Director, Field Experience Program
Justin Morrill College
Michigan State University

Nirelle J. Garson#
Assistant Director, Independent Study
Degree Program
Syracuse University

Sheila Gordon*#
Associate Dean for Cooperative Education
LaGuardia Community College

Cyril O. Houle*
Professor of Education
University of Chicago

Winton H. Manning*
Vice President, Development
Educational Testing Service

Larraine R. Matusak#
Dean, College of Alternative Programs
University of Evansville

Jules O. Pagano *# VICE CHAIRPERSON
Dean, Program Development and Evaluation
Florida International University

Jean M. Pennington*
Director, Continuing Education for Women
Washington University

Jane S. Permaul#
Dean, Experimental Educational Programs
University of California at Los Angeles

David H. Provost*#
State University Dean
New Program Development and Evaluation
California State University and Colleges

Gilberto de los Santos*
Dean of Instructional Development
El Paso Community College

Robert F. Sexton#
Executive Director, Office for Experiential Education
University of Kentucky

Peter P. Smith *# SECRETARY prior to 10/76
President
Community College of Vermont

William G. Thomas*
Director, New Dimensions
Los Angeles Community Colleges

Urban G. Whitaker#
Dean of Undergraduate Studies
San Francisco State University

*Member of the CAEL Steering Committee that supervised the project during the period when the work reported in this volume was carried out

#Member of the CAEL Steering Committee and Board of Trustees that took office October 12, 1976

CAEL is an educational association of 250 institutions of higher education and other educational organizations. It was chartered by the Regents of the State of New York in September, 1976 for the purpose of fostering experiential learning and the valid and reliable assessment of its outcomes.

CAEL (Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning) started in March, 1974 as a research and development project involving Educational Testing Service and a group of colleges and universities. Funding was provided initially by the Carnegie Corporation of New York and subsequently by the Ford Foundation, the Lilly Endowment, and the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education.

Through June 30, 1977 inquiries concerning activities, publications, or membership should be addressed to CAEL, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, NJ 08540.

Following June 30, 1977 all correspondence should be addressed to CAEL, American City Building, Suite 403, Columbia, MD 21044.

The price of this publication is $6.00 per copy.

COLLEGE-SPONSORED EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING— A CAEL HANDBOOK

John S. Duley
Michigan State University

Sheila Gordon
LaGuardia Community College

Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning

Copyright © 1977 by CAEL. All rights reserved.

CONTENTS

Introduction v

I. Some Theoretical Reflections on Experiential Education 1
Three Challenges to the Adequacy of Contemporary Higher Education 1
Areas in Which Experiential Education Is Uniquely Qualified to Serve 4
Learning to Use Knowledge and Thought Processes 4
Equipping People to Participate in Labor, Work, and Action 6
Understanding the Role of Labor, Work, and Action as Sources of Meaning in Human Life 8
Conclusion 9
Chapter I Bibliography 10

II. The Development of Programmatic Educational Objectives 11

III. Placement Development 24
What Is an Appropriate Placement? 24
Approaches to Developing Placements 28

IV. Selecting, Preparing, and Placing Students 32
Student Selection 32
Student Preparation 34
Student Placement 40

V. Monitoring Experiential Learning 42
A Note about the Agency Supervisor 43

VI. Follow-up Assessment and Integration of Learning 47

VII. On-going Program Evaluation 51
Assessing Overall Effectiveness 51

References 53
Appendix A. Resources for Placement Development, Student Preparation, and Advisement 55
Appendix B. Performance Analysis Report 57

Introduction

As a reader of this *Handbook*, you are a member of a very diverse group. Its members have in common their commitment to education, their interest in learning through experience, and their concern with the continued growth and development of people through life-long learning. The institutions, in which you as members of this group serve, include the public and private sectors, two- and four-year institutions, liberal arts colleges, professional schools, career-oriented programs, technical schools, colleges devoted to specific fields of knowledge, and colleges whose students have permanent positions which they utilize as the learning environment. The experiential education programs in these institutions in which you work are also very different in administrative arrangements. Your primary duties may be the direction of an experiential education program, or, as an individual faculty member, you may be making experiential education possible for a few of your students through independent study or courses listed as special projects. You may be one of a growing number of educators who are concerned about the rapidly changing world you and your students live in and about their need, while securing sound academic training, to develop job-related capabilities and a career. You may be exploring what experiential education can offer your students which builds toward a career. Because CAEL wishes to meet the needs of as many people and programs as possible, we have sought to design this *Handbook* to support flexibility and diversity, not to provide highly structured programmatic material. In our judgment, the state of the art of experiential education at this time and the diversity of people and institutions involved in it require two conditions for its sound development: (1) freedom to innovate in the design of programs and in the assessment of student learning; and (2) the means to assure quality in educational opportunity and evaluation. Our purpose here is to provide information that will help achieve these conditions.

Experiential education, as discussed in this *Handbook*, is an off-campus[1] learning activity, sponsored by an educator, in which the learner has the primary responsibility for the educational endeavor and for a specific task or work assignment related to his or her placement, which is the major vehicle for the student's learning. The task or work assignment and placement may be identified by the educational institution or be designed or developed by the student, and may be related to a community of people or to an institution or to a business enterprise. American colleges and universities offer this type of education in many different forms. This diversity of opportunity is demonstrated in the following typology of experiential education.[2]

Cross-Cultural Experience. A student involves himself or herself in another culture or subculture of his or her own society in a deep and significant way, either as a temporary member of a family, a worker in that society, or as a volunteer in a

---

[1]*Off-campus* is not a fully accurate term because some students work in college offices, but it is a way to refer to nontraditional studies that occur in nonclassroom settings, usually not located on campus.

[2]We recognize that experiential learning is not limited to off-campus placements but that it can be incorporated into classroom instruction by building community involvement components into courses. However, this *Handbook* focuses on the learning acquired through an off-campus placement.

social agency, with the intention, as a participant observer, of learning as much as possible about that culture and his or her own.

Work Experience (Cooperative Education). The National Commission for Cooperative Education has defined cooperative education as "... that education plan which integrates classroom experience and practical work experience in industrial, business, government, or service-type work situations in the community. The work experience constitutes a regular and essential element in the educative process and some minimum amount of work experience and minimum standard of successful performance on the job are included in the requirements of the institution for a degree."[3]

Preprofessional Training. A student serves in assigned responsibilities under the supervision of a professional in the field of education, medicine, law, social work, nursing, or ministry, putting the theory learned into practice, gaining skills in the profession, and being evaluated by his or her supervisor.

Institutional Analysis. "A student has a temporary period of supervised work that provides opportunities to develop skills, to test abilities and career interests, and to systematically examine institutional cultures in light of the central theoretical notions in a chosen academic field of study."[4]

Service-Learning Internship. "Service-learning has been defined as: the integration of the accomplishment of a task which meets human need with conscious educational growth. A service-learning internship is designed to provide students responsibility to meet a public need and a significant learning experience within a public or private institution for a specified period of time, usually 10 to 15 weeks."[5]

Social/Political Action. A student secures a placement, under faculty sponsorship, which provides an opportunity to be directly engaged in working for social change either through community organizing, political activity, research/action projects, or work with organizations seeking to bring about changes in the social order. A learning contract is usually made with a faculty sponsor to be fulfilled by the student in this type of experience.

Personal Growth and Development. A student undertakes a program in an off-campus setting that is designed to further his or her personal growth and development, such as the wilderness survival programs of the Outward Bound Schools, an apprenticeship to an artist or a craftsman, residence in a house of a religious order for the development of his or her spiritual life, or participation in an established group psychological or human relations program.

Field Research. A student undertakes an independent or group research project

---

[3]National Commission for Cooperative Education, *Colleges, Universities and Community Colleges Offering Cooperative Education Programs*, p. 1.

[4]D. G. Zauderer, *Urban Internships in Higher Education*, p. 1.

[5]R. Sigmon, *A Notebook on Service Learning*, p. 2.

in the field under the supervision of a faculty member, applying the concepts and methods of an academic discipline such as geology, archaeology, geography, or sociology.

Career Exploration. A student secures a supervised placement in business, government, industry, a service organization, or a profession in order to perform a useful service, to analyze the career possibilities of that placement, and to develop employment-related skills. The educational institution provides the means of structured reflection, analysis, and self-evaluation, the agency supervisor provides an evaluation of the student's work and career potential.

Academic Discipline/Career Integration. "A student is employed in a business, government, industry, service organization, or profession prior to entry into the educational institution. The faculty members and the educational institution provide the means of structured analysis and evaluation based on the academic discipline involved, integrating theory and practice and heightening the student's awareness and understanding of the world and his/her career in a conscious systematic fashion."[6]

Career or Occupational Development. A student is assisted in finding a series of two or more placements which are chosen, in consultation with an advisor, to provide the opportunity for advancement in skills and experience related to a specific career. This is particularly useful in technological programs when classroom and on-the-job learning are closely integrated.

The purpose of the typology is to enable us to indicate the primary purpose of a program, to identify the appropriate kinds of educational objectives, the settings to utilize, the nature of the placements needed, and the optimal academic level of the student for entry into the program. Figure 1 provides our analysis of each type of experiential education indicating the appropriate nature of placements, types of educational objectives, settings, and student entry levels. While all of us must make our own analysis based on our experience, program, and institutional context, this chart will provide a starting point for such an analysis.

Because of the diversity of need that we are trying to serve through this *Handbook*, it may not be as specific or as precise in providing step-by-step directions for program design or student assessment as some would desire. We have tried to identify the aspects of each program development area which need to be taken into account in planning and in practice, and alternative ways of dealing with them. We have left it to the reader to decide the means by which to accomplish the chosen ends.

Although all the information that you need to design and run a superior experiential education program or to provide individual students with high quality experiential learning is *NOT* to be found in this *Handbook*, we have identified and discussed what to take into account in planning your program and in advising students. In addition to discussing these programmatic aspects, we have provided

---

[6]Glenn Cummins, National Institute of Social Sciences Grant Proposal.

Differentiating Factors

1. Nature of Placement
   a. Full-time off-campus (once only)
   b. Repeated full-time
   c. Part-time (concurrent with classroom work)
   d. Field research project (group effort)

2. Objective of the Experience
   a. Self-actualization & development
   b. Career exploration
   c. Skills acquisition
   d. Serving society
   e. Changing society
   f. Conducting research
   g. Application of knowledge, methods, skills

3. The Setting
   a. Culturally different environment
   b. Business and industry
   c. Helping agencies
   d. Government
   e. Private (wilderness, craftshop, psychological institution)

4. Optimal Academic Level of Students
   a. Low (freshmen & sophomores)
   b. Medium (upperclassmen with some experience)
   c. High (graduate students)

5. Relationship of experience to academic program
   a. Reinforces specific curriculum major
   b. Fulfills broad general education objectives

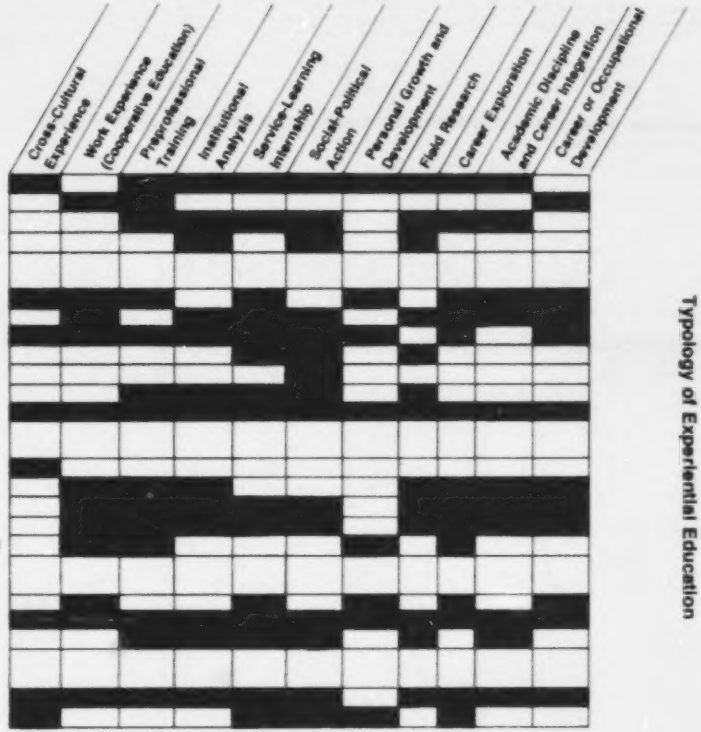


Figure 1
Differentiating Factors In Experiential Education
Typology of Experiential Education

Note. This figure has been adapted by the authors from an original chart by Dr. Richard J. Allen, Director, Division of Arts and Sciences, Johns Hopkins University Evening College and Summer Session.

a "Checklist for Guiding Students' Experiential Learning" and cross-referenced it to relevant material found in other CAEL publications. This Checklist is at the end of the Introduction (pp. x–xi).

We begin our *Handbook* with some theoretical reflections on experiential education recognizing that there is a need for a contemporary and comprehensive work on this subject. Our purpose is to share with you our point of view and encourage you to engage in the dialogue out of which a sound theoretical framework can be developed. The rest of the book is organized sequentially from the point of view of program development, beginning with the development of program educational objectives and moving through placement development and the selecting, preparing, placing, and monitoring students' learning, and, finally to program evaluation. Although the book is organized sequentially, the Checklist for Guiding Students' Experiential Learning will enable you to locate quickly any aspect of program design, development, or implementation in which you are interested. This *Handbook* is also designed to be used in conjunction with *College-Sponsored Experiential Learning–A CAEL Student Guide*, by Hadley Nesbitt. You will need to prepare special materials that are developed specifically for your program, but the *Student Guide* can form the backbone of the material which your students use. Not only can the *Guide* supplement the basic materials of your own program, but the worksheet sections can be removed and used in a looseleaf notebook by your students.

We have developed this resource material with three characteristics in mind: open-ended flexibility, freedom to innovate, and the assurance of quality. We invite you to join us and others as we seek to refine this supplemental dimension in American higher education.

CHECKLIST FOR GUIDING STUDENTS' EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

Topics Included in This Handbook

	Chapter, Pages	Cross-reference with Other CAEL Material
Develop a rationale		
• Identify type of program or programs	ii-vi	Breen et al., *Handbook*
• Develop a statement of purpose	I, 1-9	Breen et al., *Handbook*
Define educational objectives	II, 11-7	
• Identify institutional goals most closely related to your program	20	
• Determine the types of educational goals for which you wish to give credit	20	Reilly et al.
• Include the personal learning objectives of the student	21	Breen et al., *Handbook*
• Identify learning opportunities available in placements	21	
• Determine level of performance expected	21	
• Use sound resources in writing educational objectives	22	
Define what is an "appropriate" placement	III, 24-27	Breen et al., *Handbook*
• Define who determines appropriateness	25	
• Determine the amount of institutional staff support	25	
• Assess the nature of the student body	25	
• Clarify the time period for the placement	26	
• Assess the agencies' expectations	26	
Develop placements	III, 28-31	
• Determine who will develop placements	28	
• Identify potential placement opportunities	29	Breen et al., *Handbook*
• Identify strategies for developing placements	29	
• Develop a reputation and a network	30	
• Confirm placements	31	
• Maintain placements	31	
Select students	IV, 32-34	
• Define your criteria	32	
• Develop selection procedures	33	
• Recruit, if necessary	34	
Prepare students	IV, 34-40	
• Develop vehicles for preparing students	34	Breen et al., *Handbook*
• Determine academic prerequisites	35	
• Orient students to the program	35	
• Teach experiential learning skills	35	
• Facilitate the students' self-awareness	36	Breen et al., *Guide*
• Guide students to develop a learning plan	37	Breen et al., *Handbook*
• Help students anticipate change and difficulties	39	
• Prepare students to obtain a placement	39	
Place students	IV, 40-41	
• Determine the matching and placement process	40	

	Chapter, Pages	Cross-reference with Other CAEL Material
Monitor the students' experiential learning	V, 42-46	Breen et al., *Handbook*
• Determine what will be monitored	42	
• Determine who will monitor	42	
• Determine how the monitoring will be done	42	
• Determine when the monitoring will be done	43	
• Consider the role of the agency supervisor	43	
Follow-up: Assess experiential learning	VI, 47-50	Keeton Reilly et al.
• Determine what will be assessed	47	
• Determine when assessment will take place	47	
• Determine who will do the assessment	48	Keeton
• Determine how assessment will be done	48	Knapp & Sharon Reilly et al.
• Determine how to record learning	49	Keeton
• Integrate experiential learning into overall educational scheme	49	
Evaluate program	VII, 51-52	Keeton
• Use checklist to assess overall effectiveness of your program	51	
• Develop questions to ask	51	
• Collect information on program components	52	
Resources for Placement Development, Student Preparation & Advisement	Appendix A 55	
Performance Analysis Report	Appendix B 57	Permaul & Miko
• Procedure	57	Permaul & Miko
• Example	59	Permaul & Miko

CAEL Materials Cross-referenced in This Checklist

Breen, Paul; Donlon, Thomas F.; and Whitaker, Urban. *Learning and assessing interpersonal competence—A CAEL student guide.* Princeton, N.J.: CAEL, Educational Testing Service, 1977.

Breen, Paul; Donlon, Thomas F.; and Whitaker, Urban. *Teaching and assessing interpersonal competence—A CAEL handbook.* Princeton, N.J.: CAEL, Educational Testing Service, 1977.

Keeton, Morris T., and Associates. *Experiential learning: Rationale, characteristics, and assessment.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1976.

Knapp, Joan, and Sharon, Amiel. *A compendium of assessment techniques.* Princeton, N.J.: CAEL, Educational Testing Service, 1975.

Permaul, Jane Szutu, and Miko, Marina Bühler. *Documentation and evaluation of sponsored experiential learning.* CAEL Institutional Report No. 3. (revised ed.) Princeton, N.J.: CAEL, Educational Testing Service, 1977.

Reilly, Richard R., et al. *Expert assessment of experiential learning—A CAEL handbook.* Princeton, N.J.: CAEL, Educational Testing Service, 1977.

I. Some Theoretical Reflections on Experiential Education

THREE CHALLENGES TO THE ADEQUACY OF CONTEMPORARY HIGHER EDUCATION

A recent, broad-gauged evaluation of American education was reported in 1974 by the President's Science Advisory Committee in *Youth: Transition to Adulthood.* The report concludes, "It appears reasonable now . . . to look a little more carefully at the task of becoming adult, to ask not the quantitative question, 'How much more schooling?' but the qualitative one: 'What are appropriate environments in which youth can best grow into adults?' " The Committee found the situation of youth in our society to be characterized as follows: They are deprived of psychic support that once came from adults and older siblings in the extended family, they are subordinate and powerless in relation to adults, and they are outsiders to the dominant social institutions. Although new opportunities have opened up to young people in areas of consumption, leisure, and education, opportunities have declined in other areas. Opportunities to carry out responsible work outside of the home, to engage in efforts that are important to the welfare of others, have been deferred until the end of an increasingly longer period of schooling. The study raises basic questions about the adequacy of contemporary education.[7]

Another educator, Dr. Maurice Gibbons, Professor of Education at Simon Fraser University in British Columbia, made some insightful comments on the shortcomings of education drawn from the experience of viewing the Australian film, "Walkabout." The action of this film centers around the experience of two western children, lost in the wilderness in Australia. They are saved by a young aborigine engaged in his tribal rite of passage—a six-month long solo survival endurance trial. Dr. Gibbons says,

> What I find most provocative is the stark contrast between the aborigine's walkabout experience and the test of an adolescent's readiness for adulthood in our society. The young native faces a severe but extremely appropriate trial, one in which he must demonstrate the knowledge and skills necessary to make him a contributor to the tribe rather than a drain on its meager resources. By contrast, the young North American is faced with written examinations that test skills very far removed from the actual experience he will have in real life. He writes; he does not act. He solves familiar theoretical problems; he does not apply what he knows in strange but real situations. He is under direction in a protected environment to the end; he does not go out into the world to demonstrate that he is prepared to survive in, and contribute to, our society. His preparation is primarily for the mastery of content and skills in the disciplines and has little to do with reaching maturity, achieving adulthood, or developing fully as a person.[8]

---

[7]James S. Coleman, *Youth: Transition to Adulthood*, pp. vii, 125–181.

[8]Maurice Gibbons, "Walkabout: Searching for the Right Passage from Childhood and School," p. 597.

The basic questions raised by the Coleman study and the Gibbons article are about the purposes of education in our society as they relate to youth and whether or not the present educational system performs those functions.

Now it is no longer youth alone whom education is meant to serve. Men and women of all ages have entered the education market to engage in life-long learning. There are some weaknesses in the present education system for them also. Dr. Harrison and Dr. Hopkins,[9] Peace Corps trainers in the 1960's, discovered that the practice of sending trainees who were recent college graduates back to the university to study anthropology, communications, sociology, and related disciplines did not prepare them adequately for their work in developing countries. To correct this deficiency, they took the next group of trainees into a third world environment and placed upon them the responsibility of designing and executing their own training program. They determined that this experiential education model was necessary because their educational goals went beyond those of university education. The educational needs of these Peace Corps volunteers are not unlike the needs of today's nontraditional student who is seeking to change his or her career, reenter the job market, or develop new interests in life. The educational goals of these people, like our youth, extend beyond the normal goals of the traditional education system. Harrison and Hopkins presented the differences between the two types of education graphically, showing how classroom education and experiential education supplement one another. They listed the goals of the two types of education under the same headings, but the actual educational objectives were sharply in contrast. For instance, both have a goal of communication:

Classroom-Related Instruction	**Experiential Education**
Communication: To communicate fluently via the written word, and, to a lesser extent, to speak well. To master the languages of abstraction and generalization, e.g., mathematics and science. To understand readily the reasoning, the ideas, and the knowledge of other persons through verbal exchange.	Communication: To understand and communicate directly and often nonverbally through movement, facial expressions, person-to-person actions. To listen with sensitivity to the hidden concerns, values, motives of the other. To be at home in the exchange of feelings, attitudes, desires, fears. To have a sympathetic, empathic understanding of the feelings of the other.

More important was the contrast in the approaches used in learning in the two systems. The approaches are called "meta-goals" in the article. The following excerpt from the article clearly sets forth the contrast:[10]

Meta-Goals of Traditional College and University Classrooms	**Appropriate Meta-Goals for Cross-Cultural Training**
Source of Information: Information comes from experts and authoritative sources through the media of books, lec-	Source of Information: Information sources must be developed by the learner from the social environment. In-

[9]Roger Harrison and Richard L. Hopkins, "The Design of Cross-Cultural Training: An Alternative to the University Model."

[10]Harrison and Hopkins, pp. 435–438.

tures, audio-visual presentations. "If you have a question, look it up."

formation gathering methods include observation and questioning of associates, other learners, and chance acquaintances.

Learning Settings: Learning takes place in settings designated for the purpose, e.g., classrooms and libraries.

Learning Settings: The entire social environment is the setting for learning. Every human encounter provides relevant information.

Problem-Solving Approaches: Problems are defined and posed to the learner by experts and authorities. The correct problem-solving methods are specified, and the student's work is checked for application of the proper method and for accuracy, or at least for reasonableness of results. The emphasis is on solutions to known problems.

Problem-Solving Approaches: The learner is on his own to define problems, generate hypotheses, and collect information for the social environment. The emphasis is on discovering problems and developing problem-solving approaches on the spot.

Role of Emotions and Values: Problems are largely dealt with at an ideational level. Questions of reason and of fact are paramount. Feelings and values may be discussed but are rarely acted upon.

Role of Emotions and Values: Problems are usually value- and emotion-laden. Facts are often less relevant than the perceptions and attitudes which people hold. Values and feelings have action consequences, and action must be taken.

Criteria of Successful Learning: Favorable evaluation by experts and authorities of the quality of the individual's intellectual productions, primarily written work.

Criteria of Successful Learning: The establishment and maintenance of effective and satisfying relationships with others in the work setting. This includes the ability to communicate with and influence others. Often there are no criteria available other than the attitudes of the parties involved in the relationship.

Although some of those contrasting statements may be somewhat overstated, they heighten our awareness of dimensions of difference and help us understand the supplemental roles of each type of education. At the level of meta-goals, university education and cross-cultural training or experiential education differ significantly. The sources, settings, and approaches of the former tend to be formal, rational, dependent upon authority, and lacking in opportunities to gain competence in learning through interpersonal contact.

Harrison and Hopkins continue their discussion of the comparison of the two systems commenting particularly on the need for freedom to learn independently in the system concerned with preparing people to function effectively in a new or different social environment as participants.

> They differ profoundly along the dimension of freedom. It is here that the inappropriateness of traditional educational systems for overseas work is most evident. The high degree of control and dependence upon authority common in the college classroom does not lead to the development of a

> learning style facilitative of success in an overseas environment. This is not just because freedom is a good thing and everyone ought to have a lot of it. It is because so much external control implies a dependency on experts and authorities for direction, information, and validation. When the learner is deprived of these sources of support, as he is almost certain to be in the overseas environment, he is in an uncomfortable and sometimes emotionally crippling situation. He not only must solve new problems in a new setting, but he must develop a new learning style, quite on his own. This experience—not knowing how to learn without traditional supports—may be productive of a good deal of the anxiety and depression grouped under the rubric, "culture shock." It is certainly responsible for much individual failure, even when it does not lead to chronic depression and anomie.[11]

The emotionally crippling situation referred to above may be limited to Peace Corps Volunteers overseas, but many of us experience a similar condition when confronted by the necessity to function in a new or strange social environment. Though on a lower level of intensity, such experience in a rapidly changing world is common for many people.

The quotations from Coleman, Gibbons, and Harrison and Hopkins all indicate the need for supplementing classroom learning with other approaches in order for higher education to adequately fulfill the functions. The following theoretical reflections are presented in support of experiential education as a useful and necessary supplement.

AREAS IN WHICH EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION IS UNIQUELY QUALIFIED TO SERVE

Learning to Use Knowledge and Thought Processes

Bloom, in his *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*, describes the distinctively human activity of thinking in a hierarchial order beginning with awareness and proceeding through knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, and synthesis to evaluation. The classroom learning environment is a very efficient one for information assimilation and for mastering some aspects of this fundamental and distinctively human activity. However, at the level of application, learning in the classroom becomes less productive than it does in a work-service setting. As Bloom points out:

> If the situations described by the objective . . . are to involve application . . . then they must either be situations new to the student or situations containing new elements as compared to the situation in which the abstraction was learned . . . . Ideally we are seeking a problem which will test the extent to which the individual has learned to apply the abstraction in a practical way. This means that the problems should have some relation to the situations in which he may ultimately be expected to apply the abstraction.[12]

In short, the best context in which to learn application or to test it is a practical one where it is needed. Analysis, synthesis, and evaluation are also more readily learned as one works directly in settings in which such activity is required to accomplish needed tasks or objectives—i.e., experiential learning environments.

---

[11]Harrison and Hopkins, p. 439.

[12]Benjamin S. Bloom (Ed.), *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain*, p. 125.

In addition to providing needed contexts in which the learning of the higher aspects of thinking can be enhanced, experiential education is also needed as a supplement to classroom learning to prepare the experts of our society to work effectively with those they seek to serve.

In all situations of interaction between members of the helping professions—be they teachers, nurses, doctors, lawyers, social workers, counselors or ministers—and those whom they seek to help, knowledge is necessary on two levels. The first level that is necessary is informational competence in the field in which help is being offered. The second level of knowledge has to do with the practice of the profession. The distinctions between the two levels are between information and practice, knowing and doing, conceptual grasp and behavioral performance. The complementary pairs of concepts clearly indicate the need for both classroom and experiential learning. Experiential learning makes its contribution to the practice of the profession. The practice of the profession has to do with determining what knowledge is useful and how it might be applied. Such knowledge is best acquired by observation of professionals and by practice under their supervision. In addition, determining what knowledge is useful and how it might be applied in a specific case is carried out mainly through an interchange between the professional and the client. This interaction results in the definition of the problem and thus is crucial in the provision of help. A high level of skill in interpersonal interaction is most readily developed in supervised clinical or professional settings. We who teach and prepare members of the helping professions do not have at our command the best means of facilitating the linking of knowing and doing, information and practice, conceptual framework and behavioral performance if we are limited to the classroom. Learning in this area previously was acquired mainly through observation and long association as an understudy. Now it must be provided by out-of-classroom education.[13]

There is another reason why we need to supplement classroom learning with experiential education. The passive character of most classroom learning environments is one of the chief drawbacks of traditional education. Paulo Freire, after careful analysis of the teacher-student relationship concludes that its fundamental character is one of narration.

> This relationship involves a narrating subject (the teacher) and patient, listening objects (the students) .... The teacher's task is to "fill" the students with the contents of his narration .... (This) leads the students to memorize mechanically the narrated content. Worse yet, it turns them into "containers," into "receptacles" to be "filled" by the teacher. The more completely he fills the receptacles, the better a teacher he is. The more meekly the receptacles permit themselves to be filled, the better students they are. Education thus becomes an act of depositing, in which the students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor .... This is the "banking" concept of education, in which the scope of action allowed to the students extends only as far as receiving, filing, and storing the deposits. They do, it is true, have the opportunity to become collectors or cataloguers of the things they store. But in the last analysis, it is men themselves who are filed away through the lack of creativity, transformation, and knowledge

---

[13]William Birenbaum, *Overlive*, pp. 125–126.

> in this (at best) misguided system. For apart from inquiry, apart from the praxis, men cannot be truly human. Knowledge emerges only through invention and reinvention, through the restless, impatient, continuing, hopeful inquiry men pursue in the world, with the world, and with each other.[14]

Although this may be an overstatement of the nature of much of classroom learning, the truth of this analysis was most vividly demonstrated for me by a colleague who in a casual conversation asked, "Why is it that teaching graduate students is so much more satisfying and exciting than teaching undergraduates?" He then answered his own question by saying, "I guess it is because you feel a sense of mutual involvement with your graduate students in the search for new knowledge, while with the undergraduates you are simply providing them with knowledge which is new to them." These observations lead us to conclude that the full development of one's potential in the cognitive domain requires supplemental out-of-classroom learning environments in which opportunities for application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation of knowledge are present.

Equipping People to Participate in Labor, Work, and Action

Education also has the responsibility of equipping people to participate in labor, work, and action. In previous times, before occupational involvement was separated from the place of residence, people learned the skills and competences involved in labor and work by observation and practice under the supervision of highly skilled craftsmen and competent laborers. Until recently the learning of a skilled trade or the work of an artisan was done in the same fashion—as an apprentice. In those times it was economically necessary to involve children and youth in the activities of labor and work to provide for the needs of society. They learned as they helped their parents or the master craftsman. As the labor of children has become unnecessary in our society, school has been extended for them. But schooling, as we know it, is not a complete environment giving all of the necessary opportunities for becoming adult. School is a certain kind of environment—individualistic, oriented toward cognitive achievement, imposing dependency, and withholding authority and responsibility from people. As long as school was short, and merely a supplement to the main activities of growing up, this mattered little. But school has expanded to fill the time that other activities once occupied without substituting for them. The activities that are no longer provided the young by our society include opportunities for responsible action, situations in which the person comes to have authority over matters that affect other persons, occasions in which he or she experiences the consequences of his or her own actions and is strengthened by facing them. In fact, what is now lacking is all that is implied in gaining control over one's own life.[15]

These opportunities are necessary for making the transition to adulthood. But, in addition to meeting these needs, education must provide students, regardless of their ages, with the opportunities to apply theory in practice, to learn job related skills, with the competences for positive and constructive interpersonal relations, and with the skill to survive and contribute in a complex institutional setting. People

---

[14]Paulo Freire, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, p. 58.

[15]Coleman, *Youth*, p. vii.

generally need help in acquiring the ability to collaborate with others in a work group, as well as with interpersonal communication skills, decision-making skills, cultural and environmental awareness and understanding. They may need to be provided with the means of and occasions for value clarification and internalization. Experiential education provides an alternative environment for the development of these skills and competences for people of all ages.

Turning from this theoretical discussion, let us consider the practical responsibilities of colleges and universities in preparing people to participate in labor, work, and action. One significant factor is the current pressure in higher education towards careerism. We should not be surprised by the demand that a college education assure a person of a higher paying and higher status job than that which is available with less education. That has been a widely held expectation in our society for a long time. The reasons, given by older persons, for returning to colleges and universities confirm the power of this belief. A college degree is viewed as a gate key that admits one to upward mobility. This is partly true because the economic purposes of higher education are deeply embedded in our tradition. The Morrill Act of 1862, which established the basis for the system of land-grant universities, was enacted with that kind of economic purpose: "To teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanical arts. . . in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life." The land-grant universities were not to exclude other scientific and classical studies, but they were especially meant to feature the "useful sciences."

It is necessary that we prepare people for economic adaptability. They should be prepared to keep their options open, to be on the lookout and ready to respond to new occupational opportunities and needs as they arise. More and more people are changing their occupations in the midst of their productive lives. Very few college educated people end up working in the field of their undergraduate major. We should equip people for a life in which they are able to explore job options and make judgments about them based on their identified and developed strengths, talents, values and past experience. The expectation of being prepared by means of a Bachelor's degree for a specific life-long occupation is inappropriate not only because society changes but because a person's interests and abilities change. Growth and development continue after college. Employment possibilities and institutions also change. Occupations which are needed now may be nonexistent ten years from now or in such short supply that staying in one is impossible. To gear our educational systems solely to occupations available in the here and now is to do students a great disservice.

There is an additional dimension of responsibility in higher education—the preparation of people for participation in action. This has to do with preparation for freedom, or citizenship education. Few professors, administrators, or trustees would argue with this high purpose. Few would resist the idea that an educated person graduating from any of our colleges should be equipped to live and act on the basis of democratic principles. But not all would accept the political requisites that such an education involves. The subject matter of preparation for democratic citizenship involves academic disciplines, but the laboratory in which education for citizenship takes place is action in the community. Citizenship cannot be taught in a vacuum. Education for freedom requires experimentation. There is no substitute

for experience in such an education. Youth should be aided and encouraged to acquire their citizenship education through the assimilation of information in the appropriate academic disciplines and the uniting of thought and action in the realm of political involvement in the community.[16]

Although some students in citizenship education may become social activists or active participants in partisan politics, all do not need to do so. Ralph Nader describes a course designed to teach political science that does not require this type of involvement but does provide effective citizenship education. The course puts the student to work using the research tools of the social sciences and thereby adds to the knowledge available to the general public. His suggested course is entitled, "The Legislative Branch of the Government of the U.S.A." Instead of studying Congress in the aggregate, students would study the work of one of the Senators from their own state—his activities locally and in Washington, on the floor of the Senate, in campaign financing and lobbying. The student would study the activities of a particular Senator as a microcosm to understand the dynamics of the Congress. This is an effective way to understand Congress because a Senator is like a cell in an organic body; if one understands the cell, one can understand a good deal about the rest of the body. Then the students can become highly motivated because they are analyzing the Senator's statements, interviewing the Senator and his staff, as well as observing how he works, and they are producing a fund of knowledge for themselves and others.[17]

This kind of field-research-oriented course and partisan political activity do not exhaust the possibilities for experientially-oriented citizenship education. Service-learning internships in legislative offices and governmental agencies at all levels provide students with a direct involvement in the functions of government—an involvement that helps them to understand more clearly and to learn to apply the theory they have acquired in the classroom. Without direct involvement with people and processes, the students' education for freedom will be inadequate and incomplete.

Understanding the Role of Labor, Work, and Action as Sources of Meaning in Human Life

In addition to helping people learn to use knowledge and thought processes well and equipping them for labor, work, and action, another function of education is to assist people in understanding the human condition and the distinctive characteristics that mark it. An educated person should understand the basic human activities of labor, work, and action; be able to appreciate and affirm them. Such understanding would help us to love our own being, our existence, our life. Human beings are aware of many joys, but underneath all of them there is the possibility of the exultation of being alive, in feeling and using one's body. This awareness of our own being and feelings, this self-affirmation of our reality and powers, is what psychologists call "health," and it is the foundation for our capacities to achieve mutually satisfying relationships with others and to create values.[18]

---

[16]Birenbaum, *Overlive*, pp. 137–139.

[17]Ralph Nader, Unpublished speech, transcript p. 10.

[18]Langdon Gilkey, *Naming the Whirlwind: The Renewal of God-Language*, p. 315.

As human beings we need more than physical and material security, more than mere existence in life. We need meaning if we are to live creatively and actively. To have meaning is to have the sense that what we do, the life we live, the activities that make up our days, have or will in the future have some sort of value for us, for others, for the community, or for the course of history. It is the sense that our life in its concreteness and its activity is worthwhile. This sense of worth has two facets: first of all, in that our activities have value in their present actuality, in that joy and pleasure accrue in their doing, as when a difficult job has been completed and done well, and second, in that they relate us to a meaningful future. These activities are instruments or means to future ends that we find worthwhile. A sense of meaning combines a sense of the immediate joy of what we do with a hopeful projection into the future, a future to be achieved by means of our activity in our struggle with nature's elements in labor, in our creative work, or in action in our community. Education should assist people in understanding the relationship of occupations and avocations to labor, work, and action in the achievement of meaning. Experiential education can provide significant learning opportunities for acquiring this understanding.

CONCLUSION

We share these reflections with you as an invitation to join with us and other colleagues in hammering out a sound theoretical base for experiential learning. A scrutiny of the bibliography prepared in 1975 by Sexton and Ungerer for *ERIC/ Higher Education Research Report No. 3*[19] indicates the paucity of the literature in this field. However, this statement should not be interpreted to be an apology for the fact that experiential education lacks an extensive theoretical literature. The fact that the theoretical base was not neatly in place before we began helping people learn through experience ought not to surprise us. What is happening in the field is consistent with the nature of this kind of learning: Reflection and cognition are concurrent with or follow activity rather than precede it. We may be ready now for the development of theoretical literature in the field.

---

[19]Robert Sexton and Richard Ungerer, *Rationales for Experiential Education*.

CHAPTER I
BIBLIOGRAPHY

Arendt, Hannah. *The human condition.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958.

Bloom, Benjamin S. (Ed.) *Taxonomy of educational objectives. Handbook I: Cognitive domain.* New York: David McKay Co., 1956.

Birenbaum, William. *Overlive: Power, poverty and the university.* New York: Dell, 1969.

Coleman, James S. *Youth: Transition to adulthood–Report on youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974.

Freire, Paulo. *Pedagogy of the oppressed.* New York: Herder and Herder, 1972.

Gilkey, Langdon. *Naming the whirlwind: The renewal of God-language.* Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1969.

Green, Thomas F. *Work, leisure, and the American schools.* New York: Random House, 1968.

Harrison, Roger, and Hopkins, Richard L. The design of cross-cultural training: An alternative to the university model. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science,* 1967, vol. 3, no. 4, pp. 431-459.

Knowles, Malcolm. *The modern practice of adult education: Andragogy vs. pedagogy.* New York: Association Press, 1970.

Krathwohl, David R.; Bloom, Benjamin S.; and Masia, Bertram B. *Taxonomy of educational objectives. Handbook II: Affective domain.* New York: David McKay Co., 1964.

Sarason, Seymour B.; Sarason, Esther K.; and Cowden, Peter. Aging and the nature of work. *American Psychologist,* May 1975, pp. 584-592.

II. The Development of Programmatic Educational Objectives

In good teaching, one of the conditions for success is clarity, on the part of the teacher, in the statement of purpose of the particular course of instruction being offered. Clearly stated intended outcomes are important not only for the professor in planning his course, identifying the resources to use in the process of teaching, and determining how to assess the student's performance, but also for the student who needs to understand what he is supposed to know and be able to do when he has completed the course. There are two levels on which such purposes are stated: *programmatic goals* that are broad, general statements of purpose, and *educational objectives* that are statements of the specific educational outcomes we will be looking for as a result of the student having participated in our program. The companion *Student Guide* to this *Handbook*[20] gives a suggested list of nine goals with examples of possible educational objectives listed under each goal. Educational objectives are the building blocks of programmatic goals. They are the specific skills, competences, or the knowledge necessary to accomplish the goals of the program. This chapter deals with the development of these basic units, the educational objectives. Although this chapter makes a strong case for educational objectives being clearly defined at the outset, it is often true in experiential learning environments that the objective and the learning emerge organically from the activities. Therefore, it is sometimes appropriate for the educational objectives to be vague so that learning can proceed flexibly in response to shifting conditions and new experiences. In experiential education, since the control of the learning activity is primarily in the student's hands, it is also of central importance that the student develop his personal learning objectives. Suggestions regarding this are included in the *Student Guide*.

Program Goals and Educational Objectives[21]

1. *Specific Job Competences*—Particular understandings or work skills you would like to learn, such as surveying, operating a particular business machine, art work in a special medium, photographic developing, tutoring, office management, cost accounting, editing, counseling the elderly.
2. *Career Exploration*—First-hand observation of the daily routine of professionals in an area of interest, direct involvement in the types of work in a field, knowledge of job opportunities that might be available, familiarity with occupational literature and organizations.
3. *Broadening Horizons*—Understanding how the legislative process works, familiarity with the bureaucracy of public agencies, understanding why social programs often do not work well, getting a better grasp of the social role that organizations play and the values they hold.
4. *Learning about Work*—Learning how to make your way through a com-

---

[20]Hadley Nesbit. *College-Sponsored Experiential Learning–A CAEL Student Guide*.

[21]From Nesbitt, Worksheet A.

plex hiring process, understanding the fringe benefits and personnel policies that affect your welfare, learning how such practices are related to laws concerning employment.

5. *Interpersonal Skills*—Learning how to deal with pressure and tension in work relationships, how to communicate what you know to strangers, recognizing when to speak and when to listen in work relationships, learning how to handle criticism, how to convince a supervisor to try out an idea of yours.
6. *Learning from the Local Environment*—Understanding the unique history and character of an area, an institution, a community, or a workplace; using the special resources of an area to further your own understanding of a particular interest like music, social organizations, or systems analysis.
7. *Taking Responsibility*—Learning how to organize a complicated job, how to monitor your own time and effort so that a tight schedule can be met, how to get a piece of work done so that it fits with the work of others, how to take initiative in getting something difficult accomplished.
8. *Research Skills*—Learning how to seek information, how to organize facts into a persuasive argument or course of action, how to relate academic knowledge to the demands of a particular job.
9. *Other Goals*—Recreation, exploration of other materials, learning how to furnish an apartment and cope alone.

A professor of geology, commenting on the differences between his department's type of experiential education and that of other departments, underlined some of the factors that make the development of clear and assessable educational objectives both difficult and important in experiential education. He made the point that field work in geology is a group project directly supervised by faculty, whereas most other experiential programs in the University are individual placements not directly supervised by a faculty or staff member. He and his colleagues are very clear about the outcomes desired: skill in using geology field techniques and in applying knowledge learned in the classroom. The faculty are also present to evaluate the quality of the student's performance. Since, in most experiential education, the faculty member is not in direct contact with the student and the student is more individually responsible for the learning process than if he were in the classroom, it is important that the intended programmatic outcomes as well as the student outcomes be identified before the student begins this assignment.

Also, the nature of geology as a science assures a sharp focus to the purpose of the field experience. In such field projects, the learning environment, although not quite as controlled as the classroom, is more controlled than most other experiential learning settings. It is, therefore, easier to achieve congruence between the stated objectives and the opportunities for accomplishing them. In group field research, there are no tasks to be accomplished by the student other than those directed by the faculty, and there are no other claims upon the student's time, energy, or attention. This is not true for the majority of learning opportunities available through experiential education. Usually more than the learning agenda demands attention. There are the activities required by the placement. The learning objectives have to be tied to the responsibilities connected with the placement and the work assignment has to be used as the learning vehicle. Experiential

education requires the development of broadly stated assessable objectives that are attainable in a wide diversity of settings. It also requires that the specific intended outcomes be individualized according to the needs, background, and experience of the student and according to the nature of the learning opportunities provided by the placement. For these reasons, the development, refinement, modification, and adaptation of educational objectives in experiential education requires more flexibility and continual work than are usually necessary in classroom teaching.

There is another reason why the development of clear, specific, and assessable objectives is so important in experiential learning. It relates to additional points the geologist made in his comments. He and his colleagues differ on the role that competence in interpersonal skills ought to play in geological field research. He claimed that all of the faculty members, in making their evaluations of student performance in the field, take the student's competence in personal interaction into account—that is, the student's ability to function in interpersonal interactions in the field and his ability to function in leadership and participatory roles in small and large research groups have a very great influence on the grade he gets. The faculty differ in their willingness to admit this to be the case, acknowledge it as a legitimate educational area of concern, state educational objectives related to these skills, and develop the measures and expertise to assess these competences. If we are evaluating students on their interpersonal, leadership, and group participation skills, we owe it to them to say so and to indicate the basis on which we are doing it.

Most educators would agree that experiential learning provides a greater opportunity to acquire competence in interpersonal skills than a classroom learning environment does. Yet, we as educators have had less experience in developing assessable statements of intended learning outcomes in this area than we have had in the area of intellectual skills. We feel much less sure of ourselves and of the appropriateness of identifying competences to be assessed that have to do with intra- and interpersonal skills. Since experiential education provides a richer opportunity for learning in this area than classroom environments and since most of us are inexperienced in making these assessments, the objectives must be developed with great care.

Some simple fundamental questions need to be kept in mind as you go about the task of developing educational objectives for your program. They are:

As a result of students having participated in your experiential education program,

WHAT DO YOU WANT THEM TO KNOW AND AT WHAT LEVEL?

WHAT DO YOU WANT THEM TO BE ABLE TO DO AND WITH HOW MUCH PROFICIENCY?

Can you state your answers to these questions, i.e., PERFORMANCE EXPECTATIONS in such a way that

YOU WOULD KNOW A PERFORMANCE EXPECTATION WHEN YOU SAW ONE?

What does it mean to expect that "you would know one when you saw it?" In the World War II WEFT aircraft identification program, you knew a Douglas C-47 when you saw one because you knew what you were looking for—a unique silouette of Wings, Engine, Fuselage, and Tail. We need the same kind of specificity in our educational objectives. It is not specific enough to state as an objective, "The student will be able to discuss the factors influencing policy decisions in a social welfare agency." Any descriptive paragraph about factors influencing policy decisions would have to be accepted as fulfilling that objective. The statement does not provide enough criteria for screening out unacceptable answers, nor does it indicate the level of knowledge or intellectual ability and skill expected of the student. In short, you wouldn't know an attained educational objective if you saw it. The following statement is a more appropriate educational objective: "The student will be able to list five factors influencing policy decisions in a specific social welfare agency and apply social organization theory in describing the dynamics of their interaction." This gives the specificity needed to distinguish acceptable performance from unacceptable performance and indicates the expected level of knowledge and intellectual ability. This performance objective specifies the number of factors that the student must be able to identify and the level of cognitive performance expected; i.e., the student must demonstrate specific knowledge and the skills of comprehension, application, and analysis in connection with a specific field of knowledge.

This illustration points up the fact that the area of intellectual skills or the cognitive domain is a hierarchical one. The various levels of this domain, as identified by Bloom and his colleagues, are shown in a brief outline form below.

A Taxonomy of Educational Objectives

Cognitive Domain

Knowledge
- *Knowledge of specifics*
  - Knowledge of terminology
  - Knowledge of specific facts
- *Knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics*
  - Knowledge of conventions
  - Knowledge of trends and sequences
  - Knowledge of classifications and categories
  - Knowledge of criteria
  - Knowledge of methodology
- *Knowledge of the universals and abstractions in a field*
  - Knowledge of principles and generalizations
  - Knowledge of theories and structures

Intellectual Abilities and Skills
- *Comprehension*
  - Translation
  - Interpretation
  - Extrapolation
- *Application*
- *Analysis*
  - Analysis of elements
  - Analysis of relationships
  - Analysis of organizational principles
- *Synthesis*
  - Production of a unique communication
  - Production of a plan, or proposed set of operations
  - Derivation of a set of abstract relations
- *Evaluation*
  - Judgments in terms of internal evidence
  - Judgments in terms of external criteria[22]

This taxonomy provides a description of the various elements that make up the cognitive domain. It is important to bear in mind that learning objectives must be written in terms of observable or demonstrable performance and must indicate the expected level of proficiency.

Three domains have been identified as useful categories for describing human activity: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor. Bloom and Krathwohl, the editors of the two handbooks on the taxonomy of educational objectives, provide the following definitions of these domains:

> *Cognitive:* Objectives which emphasize remembering or reproducing something which has presumably been learned, as well as objectives which involve the solving of some intellective task for which the individual has to

[22]Benjamin S. Bloom (Ed.), *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I, Cognitive Domain*, pp. 201–207.

determine the essential problem and then reorder given material or combine it with ideas, methods, or procedures previously learned. Cognitive objectives vary from simple recall of material learned to highly original and creative ways of combining and synthesizing new ideas and materials.

Affective: Objectives which emphasize a feeling tone, an emotion, or a degree of acceptance or rejection. Affective objectives vary from simple attention to selected phenomena to complex but internally consistent qualities of character and conscience.

Psychomotor: Objectives which emphasize some muscular or motor skill, some manipulation of material and objects, or some act which requires a neuromuscular co-ordination.[23]

The affective domain is also hierarchical in character but, because of its nature and because we, as educators, have had less experience in organizing and assessing learning experiences in relation to it, it is more difficult to conceive of appropriate performance objectives. David Krathwohl and his associates describe the taxonomy of this domain as follows:

Taxonomy of the Affective Domain

- Receiving (attending)
  - Awareness
  - Willingness to receive
  - Controlled or selected attention
- Responding
  - Acquiescence in responding
  - Willingness to respond
  - Satisfaction in response
- Valuing
  - Acceptance of a value
  - Preference for a value
  - Commitment (conviction)
- Organization
  - Conceptualization of a value
  - Organization of a value system
- Characterization by a value or value complex
  - Generalized set
  - Characterization[24]

The work done in the CAEL project on the assessment of interpersonal skills provides a theoretical framework and suggests procedures for assessing student performances in both the cognitive and affective domains. The basic skills of interpersonal literacy identified in the CAEL *Handbook* and *Student Guide* on interpersonal competence have to do with exercising personal judgment about what action is appropriate: knowing *when* and *how* to communicate *what* to *whom in order to achieve specific goals.*[25] These are primarily skills of the affective

---

[23]David R. Krathwohl, Benjamin S. Bloom, and Bertram B. Masia. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II, Affective Domain*, pp. 6–7.

[24]Krathwohl et al., p. 95

[25]Paul Breen, Thomas F. Donlon, and Urban Whitaker, *Teaching and Assessing Interpersonal Competence–A CAEL Handbook*, and *Learning and Assessing Interpersonal Competence–A CAEL Student Guide*.

domain although they require cognitive knowledge and skills as well. In these same publications, the competences identified under the catagories of leading, supervising, mentoring, and managing require a higher level of internalization of the competences of the affective domain and more cognitive knowledge and intellectual skill than does interpersonal literacy. The development of educational objectives and the means of assessing those objectives in the interpersonal area require the combination of performance goals from the cognitive and the affective domains. Care must be taken in this since our capabilities in the two domains are uneven. We are not capable at the present time of the same level of precision in the affective as we are in the cognitive domain. It is not as easy to determine the contribution a specific learning experience has made to the student's increased skill in the affective domain as it is to determine the contribution it made to the student's mastery of subject matter and its methodology.

Students may have an opportunity to learn specific psychomotor skills in an experiential environment. If these skills are pertinent to the student's academic area or professional training, their attainment and the level of proficiency that is expected should be specified. These skills have to do with working with things or machines and encompass such functions as setting up, operating, driving, manipulating, constructing, assembling, connecting, tending, handling, measuring, weighing, feeding and/or precision working.[26] Examples are computer key punching, linotype machine operating, and electronic calculator operation.

As an aid in defining the educational objectives of your program, consult *College-Sponsored Experiential Learning–A CAEL Student Guide.*[27] It should help raise student consciousness of the intended educational goals of your program and assist in formulating their own learning objectives. One of the first sections of the *Guide* entitled, "Take Stock of Your Educational Goals," includes Worksheet A, "Student Goal Analysis," on which the students rank the importance of the general goals and determine the relationship of these goals to those of the program. The general goals that are identified include Specific Job Competences, Career Exploration, Broadening Horizons, Learning about Work, Interpersonal Skills, Learning from the Environment, Taking Responsibility, and Research Skills. The *Guide* also includes a section, "Describe Your Specific Learning Objectives," and Worksheet C for analysis of these specific learning objectives in terms of the general goals listed above. (See the following pages for copies of Worksheets A and C.) The purpose of this section of the *Guide* is to assist the students in formulating their own learning objectives to heighten their awareness of the goals of your program, and to provide a way to combine them in one document, namely Worksheet C.

---

[26]Breen, Donlon, and Whitaker, *Teaching and Assessing Interpersonal Competence.*

[27]Nesbitt, Chapter I.

WORKSHEET A
Student Goal Analysis

The nine categories summarized below represent broad types of learning goals. The examples are cited to help illustrate what types of concrete learning outcomes might be involved. After studying these, you might find it useful to rank the areas on the left from one to nine in importance to you as learning goals. On the right, indicate, if you can, the policy of your institution toward each category using the following code:

A—required in your program
B—encouraged of students but not required
C—may be recognized through credit or other means although neither required nor encouraged
D—not recognized

Your Rank		Institutional Policy Code
_____	1. *Specific Job Competences*-Particular understanding or work skills you would like to learn, like surveying, operating a particular business machine, art work in a special medium, photographic developing, tutoring, office management, cost accounting, editing, counseling the elderly.	_____
_____	2. *Career Exploration*-First-hand observation of the daily routine of professionals in an area of interest, direct involvement in the types of work involved in a field, knowledge of job opportunities that might be available, familiarity with occupational literature and organizations.	_____
_____	3. *Broadening Horizons*-Understanding how the legislative process works, familiarity with the bureaucracy of public agencies, understanding why social programs often do not work well, getting a better grasp of the social role that organizations play and the values they hold.	_____
_____	4. *Learning about Work*-How to make your way through a complex hiring process, understanding the fringe benefits and personnel policies that affect your welfare, learning how such practices are related to laws concerning employment.	_____
_____	5. *Interpersonal Skills*-Learning how to deal with pressure and tension in work relationships, how to communicate what you know to strangers, being able to recognize when to speak and when to listen in work relationships, learning how to handle criticism, how to convince a supervisor to try out an idea of yours.	_____
_____	6. *Learning from the Local Environment*-Understanding the unique history and character of an area, an institution, a community, or a workplace; using the special resources of an area to further your own understanding of a particular interest like music, social organization, or systems analysis.	_____

7. *Taking Responsibility*-Learning how to organize a complicated job, how to monitor your own time and effort so that a tight schedule can be met, how to get a piece of work done so that it fits with work of others, how to take initiative in getting something difficult accomplished.

8. *Research Skills*-How to seek new information, how to organize facts into a persuasive argument or course of action, how to relate academic knowledge to the demands of a particular job.

9. *Other Goals*-Recreation, exploration of other materials, learning how to furnish an apartment and cope alone.

WORKSHEET C
Analysis of Specific Learning Objectives

List below, within the nine broad categories, the specific learning objectives you might expect to accomplish through your field experience. Refer to Worksheet A for examples of specific learning objectives in each of the nine categories.

1. Specific Job Competences

2. Career Exploration

3. Broadening Horizons

4. Learning about Work

5. Interpersonal Skills

6. Learning from the Local Environment

7. Taking Responsibility

8. Research Skills

9. Other Goals (not necessarily related directly to learning)

Aspects to be Considered in Developing Educational Objectives

What educational goals of your institution relate most directly to your program?

What are the types of educational goals for which you wish to give credit?

What are the needs and personal learning objectives of the student?

What learning opportunities are available in experiential learning settings?

What standards of performance are acceptable?

What resources are there for writing sound objectives?

In developing educational objectives for an experiential education program, a number of aspects ought to be considered. A good starting point is to *identify the institutional goals of the college or university that are most directly related to your program and incorporate them.* Most institutional goals are broad, general statements such as: "The student should have knowledge of a broad range of contemporary events, be capable of analyzing them, be able to develop and defend a position in connection with an event, and be able to develop, carry out, and evaluate a plan of action in the public realm."

The educator's task in operationalizing these goals is to prescribe performance objectives within them which a student can accomplish in a particular course or program. A performance objective is an assessable description of what it is you expect a person to be able to do upon the completion of a course or learning program. The following is an example of a performance objective that is directly related to the above institutional goal and is achieveable through an experiential education program:

> Ability to plan, execute and evaluate an action in the public realm. Performance Objective #1: The student shall develop and describe a community action project to be undertaken in which she has some primary responsibility. A statement of objectives, the plan of action including steps to be taken, a time table, and a description of the student's role in the project will be included in the description.

Another aspect to which serious attention should be given in developing educational objectives is *the types of achievement for which you wish to give academic credit.* Dr. James Coleman in his paper "Differences between Experiential and Classroom Learning"[28] calls attention to the distinction between"information assimilation" and "experiential learning," or learning by "trial and error." What

---

[28]In Morris T. Keeton and Associates, *Experiential Learning: Rationale, Characteristics, and Assessment.*

we feel most comfortable in assessing is information assimilation, a common mode in the classroom. Since experiential education provides significant opportunities for the development of competence in other levels of the cognitive domain and in the other two domains as well, these goals should be identified and performance objectives should be written for them. Here is an example of an interpersonal performance objective:

Performance Objective:

The student effectively performs the role of leader in a task group: 'Effectively' means receiving ratings of *yes* on at least four of the following tasks:

(1) communicate clearly to the group the tasks or purpose of the meeting;

(2) monitor and influence communication in such a way that the group does not stray from its objectives; support group members in such a way as to assure continued involvement (active or passive) in the process;

(3) summarize and clarify positions stated, where useful, and draw implications for further discussion or action;

(4) assure that the group meets its original or modified objectives within the required time limit while securing the support of the maximum number of group members.

It is very important to be clear in your own mind about the types of learning for which you are granting credit so that you are consciously aware of what you are doing and can defend it on sound educational and evaluative grounds.

The needs and personal learning objectives of the student should be considered insofar as they relate to and are not in conflict with the institutional and program goals of your operation. Providing for these does mean encouraging the student to give attention to them and to write them up as a part of his stated purpose in engaging in the program or as part of his learning contract. The *Student Guide* has helpful sections on this.

The *Student Guide* encourages the student to learn as much as possible about the duties involved in the work or service setting as a basis for specifying learning objectives. This information is also important for you as you work with students to develop your program's objectives. *The objectives must be developed with full knowledge on your part of the learning opportunities available through the various placements to be filled by your students.* You will be able to determine this through correspondence, conversations, and visits with your student's supervisors. You will also be able to determine what educational objectives are appropriate through the job or task descriptions your students receive from the various placement agencies. It is important to have a high congruence between your educational objectives and the learning opportunities provided through student placements.

The level of expected and acceptable performance should be identified. The

criteria you intend to use in evaluating the student's performance must be specified before the student begins his work. Do you expect an awareness level of knowledge, information about terminology and methods, or ability to apply knowledge in the accomplishment of specific tasks? What product or report of performance do you want and from whom? On what basis will they be evaluated?

One other suggestion—the following phrases that commonly appear in statements of educational objectives are unacceptable because they are nonspecific in nature:

Unacceptable phrases

The student will:

develop appreciation for . . .

increase his interest in . . .

develop better understanding of . . .

develop conceptual thinking . . .

learn about the concept of world unity . . .

The following phrases are more acceptable because of their specificity:

More acceptable phrases

The student will be able to:

differentiate

construct

repair

list

name five characteristics of . . . . .

describe the functioning of the office in which he works using the terminology and analytical techniques of social organizational theory.

type 45 words a minute with only two mistakes per page

match the names of world leaders and their countries

There are some good resources available to anyone wishing to work on the development of sound educational objectives. *Handbooks I and II, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives,* edited by Bloom and Krathwohl, which were referred to earlier, are basic reference works. *Preparing Instructional Objectives,* by Robert F.

Mager, is a cornerstone book for anyone developing an experiential program.

The writing of accurate objectives is a demanding task—one in which few of us are either experienced or skilled. We hope that the suggestions in this chapter will provide help, and will encourage you to join in the exploratory charting of this poorly mapped terrain.

III. Placement Development

Define what is an "appropriate" placement
- Define who determines appropriateness
- Determine the amount of institutional staff support
- Assess the nature of the student body
- Clarify the time period for the placement
- Assess your expectations of the agencies
- Assess the agencies' expectations

Develop placements
- Determine who will develop placements
- Identify potential placement opportunities
- Identify strategies for developing placements
- Develop a reputation and a network
- Confirm placements
- Maintain placements

The placement is the *sine qua non* of the experiential program. Placements, however, exist within a mosaic of interests. As the previous chapter stresses, your programmatic objectives are a key element in this mosaic. Other major—and often competing—interests are those of your institution, your students, and the agency or placement setting. Your persistent task is to keep aware of and to reconcile these interests as you relate to your program's field placements.

This chapter outlines a set of questions helpful either to consider before launching your program or to use as a checklist for reexamining and strengthening it. (It should be noted that the order in which these questions are presented is a logical one that rarely parallels the real and interwoven process of program development.) In addition, this chapter suggests that you develop a profile of your institution and analyze key issues in order to clarify the elements that constitute *appropriate* placement. Approaches for developing placements and some of the issues to consider in this process are also identified.

WHAT IS AN APPROPRIATE PLACEMENT?

There is no simple rule of thumb for "appropriateness." Different students, different programs set their own requirements. Some programs are highly individualized and recognize any placement as appropriate if it permits a student to realize his own learning objectives—which may be as broad as acquiring work experience or analyzing social interaction in the workplace or community. On the other hand, some programs require that placements specifically provide opportunities to reinforce or develop specific competences, such as programming an IBM 370 computer or teaching reading to elementary school pupils. What is "appropriate," moreover, is inevitably influenced by what is feasible to obtain. With your programmatic objectives in mind, you will want to establish a profile of an "appropriate" placement. To do this, you may find it helpful to take into account the issues described below.

Who Determines Appropriateness?

What is an appropriate placement varies from institution to institution, as do programmatic objectives. One institution may require that placements closely parallel the students' curriculum majors, whereas another looks for placements that provide opportunities apart from the standard curriculum. In such different approaches, the person (or persons) with the authority to determine "appropriateness" is central. An individual faculty member or program unit may have total control over the selection of placement; or various committees or departments may want to play a role. Where control lies with an academic department, placements are likely to emphasize the objectives of the department. On the other hand, a central office for off-campus education may focus on personal development, general education, or interdisciplinary concerns. And, where an individual faculty member can use independent study credits according to his or her own discretion, he or she will have considerable latitude in determining appropriateness.

How Much Institutional Staff Support Is Available?

The amount of staff support that can be provided to the student is an important factor in considering placements. If you must supervise large numbers of students and thus have little time to monitor the individual student's progress, you may need to have highly structured placements. You may find it feasible to allow more latitude if you have a modest number of students, or if you can provide close contact with the students (through frequent seminars or other direct staff support). For example, one student learning about business management by developing his own small business may demand much more faculty supervision than a student working as a management trainee in an established firm.

Who Are the Students?

The nature of the student body exercises its own constraints. A faculty that is planning an experiential program must take into account the personal, intellectual, and economic resources of its students. For example, a school with a sophisticated, affluent student body may find many of its students interested in and capable of financing foreign travel. A more provincial, low-income student body may lack the economic resources necessary for such a field experience and may see travel as a luxury to be deferred until one's career is launched. For such students, a paid position as a day camp counselor or a bank teller trainee may be more appropriate. On the other hand, many students may need to have their first field experience highly structured and supervised, but will be able to assume greater independence in subsequent experiences. An academically motivated group of students may be open to certain categories of experiences that would be less appealing to a group focused on careers. And, even given similar interests, one group of students may require more support and supervision than another. Furthermore, the generalized distinctions that can be made among different groupings of students must, of course, also be made among individual students at the same institution.

What Is the Placement Time Period?

There is a great variety of time periods: afternoons; one or two days a week; intersession; a semester; a summer; a full year. You will find that several factors influence your placement calendar:

- The college calendar, itself.
- Geography, or the accessiblity of placements.
- A time frame such as afternoons or a day or two a week requires the placement to be within easy commuting distance, whereas the other options permit the student to work far from the college.
- Your program's educational objectives. A daily afternoon assignment as a typist for the full year may be the best schedule for a secretarial science student's building her typing skills. The same schedule, however, may be less suitable to the objective of immersion in an alien culture. For some insecure students, a full-time work experience, far from the support of home and college, may be traumatic, but for others such distance is needed to encourage growth. In short, you must consider the amount and concentration of time necessary to achieve the objectives set out for your students.

What Are Your Expectations of the Agency?

When you place your students in some kind of organization,[29] it is important that you clarify—for yourself and for the agency—what you expect from the agency. Do you want the agency to provide the student with supervision, support, instruction, or opportunities for observation? Do you want the supervisor to evaluate the student according to the college's procedures? Agencies can be very cooperative if they understand your objectives and procedures. (*Remember*, any one agency may be either wholly unfamiliar with internship programs *or* accustomed to internship programs with substantively different objectives from yours.) Some agencies, on the other hand, will show little if any flexibility. But, their own operational procedures may be adequate for you—or you may be seeking nearly any "real world" experience. The key is to know what you want and expect.

What Are the Agency's Expectations?

Many agencies are committed to socially beneficial programs and are attracted to a relationship with an academic institution, but they necessarily have their own interests. Put another way, to be "appropriate," a placement must not only meet your expectations, it must also be feasible and productive for the agency. The agency has work to be done, deadlines to be met, profits to be realized. At the very least, a placement cannot be excessively demanding of the employer's time. You need to be attuned to the agency's need for productivity, if not immediately, then at least in due time. (For example, if it will take eight weeks to train a person to do a particular assignment and your placement period is fifteen weeks long, your stu-

---

[29]In some cases, the field experience is an independent project such as traveling or community organization where the student is not assigned to any agency. In these circumstances, the college cannot place specific demands on the placement setting.

dents may not be the most suitable. If, on the other hand, your students are prepared to return for two subsequent fifteen-week periods, with an interest in full-time employment, you may have a match.) Such concerns may seem to compromise the college's hopes, but the college may turn them to an advantage. The employer's interests can help educate the student—though the process may seem tedious to the student—about the real requirements of a functional organization.

Appropriate Placement: Case Analysis

College A's field experience program is a political science internship, controlled by the political science department. It has assigned a faculty member to the advisement of ten interns, who are all placed at City Hall as special assistants to various mayoral staff. The faculty member has been released from two courses (or six credits of teaching) and will be able to run a weekly, one-hour seminar for the students and have a half-hour conference on site with each student. The students are all seniors, carefully screened, with good analytical skills. The students will earn credits for the semester-long internship. Since the students tend to be from middle-income families and since the internship carries full semester of credit, the fact that it carries no salary is not a problem. The objectives of the internship program are to facilitate students' understanding of the political forces that influence public policy decisions. Each student is expected to shadow his assigned mayoral aide and to develop a lengthy paper analyzing one major policy in which the aide is involved. The aides have reluctantly agreed to let the interns accompany them and stress that they will have no time to be helpful to the interns; they also have insisted on the right to review the term papers to delete any confidential information. The College's judgment is that, given the amount of faculty time it provides and the capabilities of the students, the potential for considerable learning exists and that the "confidentiality" restrictions can be accommodated.

This internship might well be inappropriate to the programs of many institutions—for example, to a college which had a 1:150 faculty-student ratio, or which granted minimal or no credit for the experience, or which had students with little public exposure or poor analytical skills, or students who had to maintain part-time jobs for income.

On the other hand, an internship as a management trainee at a major department store would not meet the programmatic objectives of College A. It might, however, be suitable to the program at College B where objectives included career exploration, learning about the world of work, as well as learning about political science (e.g., an objective could be to describe the politics of the children's wear department). Even if College B's students were sophomores and lacked confidence and initiative, the college could rely on the store's highly structured training program to provide supervision for the interns.

College C has a student body whose average age is around 30, and most students have their own full-time jobs. Probably none of their jobs would meet the stringent programmatic requirements for specific political science learning of College A, but probably all could meet the general expectations of College B that they describe the politics of their workplace.

APPROACHES TO DEVELOPING PLACEMENTS

There is no magic key to developing placements. Development is an interesting, often creative task. It is almost always complex and includes a number of processes, which do not necessarily follow in the orderly fashion suggested here, but which are important to keep in mind, particularly for the program that needs a sizable inventory of positions.

Who Will Develop the Placements?

The decision as to who develops placements may already be made at your institution. Or, it may be up to you to decide the kind of staffing approach you want to follow. In any event, it may be helpful to consider that there are at least four different approaches: (1) You may choose to recruit a specialized "job" developer to develop placements. (2) You may release an instructional faculty member to handle the task. (3) You may permit students to seek their own placements. (4) You may use an independent "brokering" agency. Each approach has its own strengths and weaknesses; and, in real situations, each often is combined with other approaches or other job functions.

Development requires knowledge of the program, time and concentration, and an ability to sell. The specialized job developer should have the time and be a salesman by style, but he may lack the intimate understanding of the program and of the students which the faculty member would probably have. The faculty member, on the other hand, has his time and energy fragmented and may well lack the specific experience of selling. The student, in general, will tend to lack all three characteristics, but, on the other hand, will be highly motivated and will benefit enormously from the experience of trying to develop a placement. A "brokering" agency—such as the Urban Corps, Washington Learning Alternatives, and various state internship offices—has a bank of positions and staff to place and provide some monitoring to the students. These agencies are very useful and often offer a range of contacts and services, beyond the capacity of an individual college program. By their nature, however, they tend to limit the college's control over the specific placement and the college's ability to determine the appropriateness of a position for the student. Colleges may also utilize standard employment agencies, especially temporary agencies. Such agencies have the advantages of scope, but generally are unfamiliar with the objectives of experiential education.

Size of the program is a key determinant. A large, well-financed program can afford specialization; a shoestring operation depends on the facility of the faculty member or the initiative of the student. A college may decide to hire one person to concentrate on development (probably including program coordination in his responsibilities), may release an existing faculty member part or full time to do the development, may leave development itself solely to the student, or may rely on a brokering agency. Many programs use a combination of approaches. Whatever the arrangements for development—and whatever approach is emphasized in selecting the person to develop placements—the complete process is a highly interrelated one; a specialized developer must become familiar with the program; the faculty member who supervises the placement and/or evaluates the learning must be knowledgeable about the employing agencies and their needs, as, indeed,

the student has to be; a brokering agency must be carefully apprised of the objectives of the college and its students.[30]

Where to Look for Placement?

Look everywhere![31] Your students' own jobs can become rich learning laboratories with guidance from you. And their employers may also hire other students. Your local community has many projects and activities. Try the yellow pages or use a brokering agency. Sniff around conferences, conventions, and cocktail parties. Don't be easily discouraged by lack of interest. Use a rejection to help you develop, modify, and sharpen your approach. Keep your criteria for a good placement in mind, and adapt as you proceed. Borrow some questions from the marketing strategists and ask: Who wants to use your students? Who has a need for them? Who has the capacity to use them? And, in the case of paid placements, who wants and needs them enough to pay? Or, seen from a different perspective, who can be persuaded to want them? Your best "markets" may not be the most apparent. For example, the public schools may seem to be the most likely target for placing students interested in education; however, the schools' budgetary constraints and the availability of student teachers may suggest otherwise. Your best bet, instead, could be private preschools, YMCA's, summer camps, or even corporate training programs—places where there may be a greater unmet need. Need, alone, may not be sufficient; an employer must also have the capacity to *use* the students—staff who can readily train and supervise new employees, and jobs that can absorb relatively untrained and temporary employees.

How to Approach Agencies?

In addition to identifying the types of agencies or situations[32] that would provide suitable placement, you will want to develop approaches to help sell the program to these agencies. Carefully consider the aspects of the program that are or can be shown to be attractive to potential employing agencies and anticipate the various reactions you may encounter, e.g., generally conservative or negative, or concerned with trade union requirements or staff morale, cost factors (gaps in staffing, allocation of time for supervision). Then, through what is usually a process of trial and error, work out an effective appeal that can demonstrate the benefits of using students.

---

[30]Since development is a complex process, some organized training may be appropriate. There are a number of useful approaches, including training institutes and conferences specifically geared to developing college internships; a number are funded under Title VIII Cooperative Education sections of the Higher Education Act (USOE). The American Management Association and other industry-related groups sponsor workshops on selling techniques. The telephone company provides free training in telephone sales techniques. You may also want to use consultants experienced in placement development. In addition, you may wish to develop your own training, using self-generated role-playing and simulation games. Regardless of the method of training, any staff member doing placement development will need a careful orientation to all aspects of your institution, since in developing placements one frequently is "selling" the institution as a whole.

[31]See Appendix A.

[32]The term *agency* is used here to refer to the organization, firm, business, or other setting in which the student is placed.

You will want to be prepared to answer all the agencies' questions. They will want to know about your program, e.g., the freedom they have to choose among student candidates, the academic preparation of the students, and the calendar of the program. They may also want general data on the school—enrollments, ethnic composition, types of curricula. If they are familiar with internship programs (e.g., they may have students from the high school co-op or the graduate school public administration programs), you will want to distinguish yours. They also may want to know whether they have to pay fringe benefits or unemployment insurance, if the college has liability insurance covering the interns, or if students will join the union. They may also be concerned with the confidentiality of certain of their activities.[33]

Develop materials that will help persuade by mail or will aid the in-person selling process. Materials may include sample letters, brochures, descriptions of procedures and requirements, information on students, favorable press coverage of the institution. Materials should be clear and brief, and ideally should be able both to stand on their own and to serve as tools in a personal meeting. Ambitious (and well-financed) developers may also want to consider visual materials, such as slides or films.[34] Armed with your appeal and materials, determine how best to approach each agency. A safe start is a letter with a simple brochure enclosed, followed directly with a telephone call requesting an appointment. Telephoning first can be effective; and just "dropping in" can also work. The ideal is to bypass such approaches and arrange personal introductions to potential employers or have employers seek you out. This results not only from good luck but from attention to developing a name and a network of contacts.

How to Develop a Reputation and a Network?

Developing placements requires more than a specific contact of a specific potential employer. It requires a broader public relations approach to get the program known widely and to create or capitalize on networks of contacts. It requires a heightened awareness, definite links to potential placements, a bit of piggybacking on existing contacts or programs, and "readiness" for serendipity. If there is a field experience program in another part of your institution, it may well have contacts that you could use. For example, the firm that uses engineering interns may well have a library assistant position as well; or the office that coordinates study abroad can probably provide assistance to your student who wants an independent travel/study project. The college's board of trustees is undoubtedly a rich source of contacts, as are alumni—and as well may be next week's cocktail party, or town meeting, if your eye is open to the possibilities. You may also decide that it is worthwhile to establish an advisory board of influential individuals, geared to the field experience opportunities you would like to offer. Advisory boards can be enormously helpful

---

[33]For example, one student enrolled for field experience credit happened to be a highranking police officer whose research project was a study of disciplinary actions against patrolmen. The student and his employing agency would not release, in or for writing, names or specific details.

[34]These must be considered carefully because they are expensive—both in money and in planning time—and because they do not suit the majority of selling situations. They can, however, be very effective with groups of potential employers and for general public relations efforts. It is advisable not to invest large funds in materials until different approaches have been experimented with.

vehicles; however, setting up an effective advisory board is a complex and time-consuming task, as is keeping the group active and interested.

How to Confirm a Placement?

It is very important to confirm placements. You need to clarify your understanding with the agency regarding a job description and other factors; you need to be sure that there is a position available and not just a bit of politeness.[35] Try to get in writing a description of the student's assignment, any special skill or other requirements, the hours and starting day, the salary or stipend (if any). It is wise to assure the agency that such a description is merely a written confirmation, not a legally-binding contract.

After the official confirmation, you should reinforce the agency's understanding of the objectives, and the distinctive characteristics of your program, and what is expected of the agency. In addition, you will want to meet the individual who will directly supervise your students, interest him in the program, and make sure that he understands it and that he feels he can rely on you, if problems develop. Ideally, the result of your careful work with the agency and the specific supervisors will be to get them to identify with the program and to involve both of them in refining and in realizing the student's learning plan. Having the agency staff collaborate with you on developing evaluation forms and procedures is a good way to begin.

How to Keep Your Placements?

Maintaining placements requires a lot of "tender, loving care." Begin by following up your initial agreement with a "thank you" letter. A letter of appreciation from a dean or the president is also a good idea. Keep in touch with all your agency contacts, as well as with the direct supervisor of your students. Remember that they want to feel—as you do—that what they are doing for your students is important, appreciated, and part of the educational process. So—

- Get a dean or the president to write, thanking them for cooperating with the program.
- Put them on the college's mailing list.
- Invite them to college events.
- Schedule special luncheons or other occasions for them to meet with faculty.
- Ask them to sponsor an award to an outstanding graduate.
- Keep in touch even if the agency has stopped participating.
- Link them to other college programs that may serve their needs (e.g., your college's noncredit program in computers for managers may be just what your agency contacts want to take).
- In all your dealings with the agency and especially with new supervisors, clarify the distinctiveness and expectations of your program. Remember, your program is not their first priority!

---

[35]Caveat: The hard-bitten corporate employer who rejects salesmen every day often finds himself intimidated by a "professor" and tries to avoid telling him "no" directly.

IV. Selecting, Preparing, And Placing Students

Select students
- Define your criteria
- Develop selection procedures
- Recruit, if necessary

Prepare students
- Develop vehicles for preparing students
- Determine academic prerequisites
- Orient students to the program
- Teach experiential learning skills
- Facilitate the students' self-awareness
- Guide students to develop a learning plan
- Help students anticipate change and difficulties
- Prepare students to obtain a placement

Place students
- Determine the matching and placement process

The appropriate, well-developed placement requires the appropriate, well-prepared student. The steps from selection to placement are complex and vary from college to college, from program to program. There is no set way of developing these components, but in planning or reviewing your program the process might be considered as having three phases: selecting the students, preparing them, and placing them.

STUDENT SELECTION

Some institutions require that all students in designated programs have a field experience. Some institutions have no organized field experience program, and the student is the initiator. Between these two ends of the spectrum are programs in which students apply and are screened by faculty. Regardless of the situation, how you select your students is a key component of your program. To select students, you need to clarify your criteria and establish a procedure for selection that may include active recruitment.

Define Your Criteria

Among the criteria which you may wish to consider are the following:
- That students meet academic prerequisites,[36] including
  - — enrollment in certain program majors,
  - — fundamental courses (e.g., composition, speech),

[36]It should be specifically noted that it is not necessary to have academic prerequisites. Programs that aim to motivate the student, to give the student a general introduction to the quality of work, or to encourage personal growth may disregard or minimize academic prerequisites.

  - — specific technical courses (e.g., foreign language, intermediate accounting, social science, research methods),
  - — credit accumulation,
  - — grade-point average.
- That students understand the requirements and objectives of the program.
- That students demonstrate motivation, especially with respect to the established objectives of the program (e.g., a program emphasizing educational goals may wish to discourage students whose primary aim is earning money or who view a field placement as "easier" than course work).
- That students have clearly thought-out objectives for their field experience.
- That students have requisite skills, maturity, ability to deal with people, criteria that are often set in human services type programs.
- That students are free to travel and/or leave the area.
- That students have prior work experience.
- That students have a current job to which program objectives could be applied and, in some cases, where the supervisor is willing to cooperate with the program.
- That students have the ability to obtain a position successfully.
- That students' objectives are parallel to those of the program (e.g., a student seeking career exploration would not meet the criteria of a program emphasizing sequential career development leading to a permanent position).

It is not necessary that students meet all established criteria to be admitted into the program. Your program, in fact, may specifically prepare students to fulfill certain criteria, e.g., understanding program objectives or ability to obtain a position. Certainly, in mandatory programs, part of the burden of seeing that the student has met the criteria lies with the program. Viewing the matter of selection criteria from a different perspective, you may decide not to formalize criteria until you have had the experience of placing a few students.

Develop Selection Procedures

Except in mandatory programs,[37] it is necessary to develop procedures to select students from among those who wish to participate in the field experience program. It is best, wherever possible, to keep your selection procedure simple. However, the need for a highly select group of students, scarcity of placements, and the requirements of certain faculty or administrative offices for a role in selection may dictate otherwise. Above all, what is important is that your selection process be clear and straightforward in order to avoid confusion or bad feelings.

In determining your selection process, you need to decide how the student

---

[37]A note on mandatory programs is appropriate here. You may find special problems in a mandatory program because all students are expected to have an internship. Yet all students are not easily placed, and a few, often because of personal and emotional difficulties, may be unplaceable. On the one hand, the existence of the program forces the student and the college to recognize these difficulties that will eventually prevent the student from being successful. On the other hand, the fact that a student may be unplaceable poses many problems and requires intensified counseling and special arrangements. These may include a waiver from the internship requirement or an individually developed placement, or having the student change majors, or even colleges.

applies and how and by whom the "application" is reviewed. You may design a formal application form; you may permit students simply to express their interest; or a faculty member may nominate the student. The review process may involve the judgment of only one faculty member or may involve a panel of reviewers, including any or all of the following: faculty from one or several departments, counselors, or students. The selection process might include assessing an application form (perhaps with a written statement) or interviewing the student—or both.

Recruit, If Necessary

In some institutions, selection is less a problem than recruiting adequate numbers of students to a program. Like placement development, student recruitment is very much a public relations and marketing task. One must first:

- Consider the program that one is offering and its appeal to students.
- Identify potential groups of students who might be interested (e.g., accounting club, Afro-American student club, student council, introduction to data processing class).
- Exploit the communications vehicles available in the school—student newspaper, radio, bulletin boards, etc.
- Develop a student advisory committee, or student-faculty advisory committee.
- Work closely with counselors, personnel in the financial aid offices, and others who know about students' personal and career plans.
- Work closely with faculty and instructional departments; make in-class presentations.
- Work closely with the admissions office, which will be in the best possible position to recruit students initially.
- Caveat—be careful not to oversell.

STUDENT PREPARATION

Students are systematically educated for further schooling; they are rarely educated for learning through their own experience outside the classroom. Thus, a faculty member has to analyze his objectives carefully and develop a serviceable preparatory program.

What Vehicles Are Useful?

Normally, the faculty member needs to go outside the standard course offering to find appropriate preparatory vehicles. A common pattern is a specially designed course or seminar—sometimes for credit, sometimes not. Such a course, however, cannot rely on traditional methods but uses simulations, role playing, one-day "immersions," and other experientially-related techniques. One-to-one tutorial-type preparation is extremely effective, though expensive. There are many books, among them some of the CAEL publications, which are helpful texts and which can also be used independently by the student.[38]

---

[38]For other resource materials and references, see Appendix A.

What Academic Preparation?

As outlined in the previous section dealing with criteria, we stressed the importance of determining the academic background necessary for a particular field experience and requiring it as a prerequisite. Academic prerequisites may include program major, fundamental courses, specific courses, credit accumulation, and grade-point average. They may also include background in certain areas, which may be part of academic courses, such as the social science skill of participant observation. Skills such as these will be discussed in a section on experiential learning skills below.

Provide Program Orientation

It is very important that students understand your program, its objectives, and its requirements.[39] Potential employers and field supervisors will expect this, and you will find it essential for effective implementation. Some of the aspects of the program to which students must be oriented are:

1. The objectives of the program.
2. The faculty member to whom the student will report.
3. The academic or other prerequisites for the program.
4. The reporting procedures that will be used while in the field and/or after returning?
5. Once placed, how a student may renegotiate his learning plan, or modify or change his placement assignment.
6. How the student will be evaluated.
7. The student's obligations to the school in the case of wanting to leave the placement, being dismissed, or wanting to continue beyond the school term.
8. The dates and times of the field experience. (These may be different from the academic calendar.)

Teach Experiential Learning Skills

There are at least three basic types of skills that a student should bring to his placement in order to maximize his learning:

- Careful observation skills
- Reporting skills
- Research and interviewing skills

Careful observation is perhaps the most important aspect of experiential learning. Students may have learned participant observation skills in social science classes, or similar skills may be introduced separately.

Reporting skills are intimately related to observation skills. You may ask a student to keep a log or journal, or otherwise record what he observes in experiences in his placement. A particularly useful technique is the "performance analysis report," a modification of the "critical incident" technique. This approach

---

[39]It is equally important that students understand the drawbacks of field experience programs, especially with respect to acceptability of credit. Students who contemplate transferring to another undergraduate institution or applying to graduate school should know that currently many institutions either do not recognize, or accept only minimal, experiential credit.

asks a student to keep a record of selected important experience, and to analyze the participants' behaviors, reasons, and learning outcomes.[40]

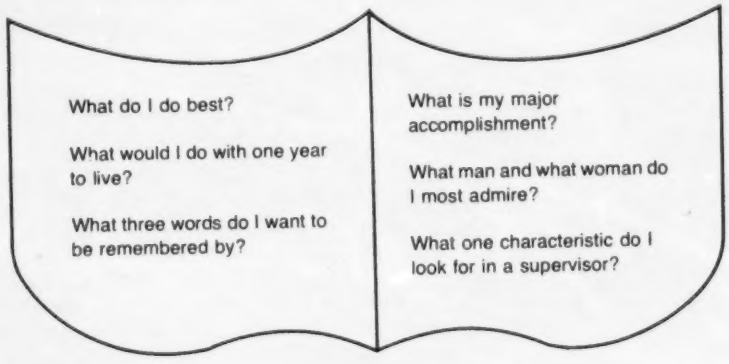
Research and interviewing skills are essential because a student needs to be able to formalize questions and to pursue the answers to those questions, whether this is done by interviewing individuals or by seeking the answers through books and other resources.

Facilitate Self-Awareness

In order to develop goals for and to get the most out of the placement, a student needs to be thoroughly aware of what he or she is bringing to the placement. The faculty member needs to guide the student through the often difficult path of self-assessment and self-awareness and to encourage the student to ask himself or herself these questions:

- Who am I?
- What do I most like/least like to do?
- What do I do best/least well?
- How do different contexts affect my abilities?
- What have I done?
- What are my major accomplishments?
- What do I most want to do?
- Where do I see myself five to ten years from now?
- What do I value—power, status, money, helping others, being appreciated?

To facilitate such analysis, you may choose to have a general group or small group discussion, or you may choose a "game" approach in which students are asked to focus on five or six key questions, write the answers, then discuss or exchange them with another student. One effective technique is to ask students to draw a shield or pie or some other shape and answer the questions in each sector. A "shield", for example, might look like this:


What do I do best?
What would I do with one year to live?
What three words do I want to be remembered by?
What is my major accomplishment?
What man and what woman do I most admire?
What one characteristic do I look for in a supervisor?

[40]See Appendix B for a more detailed description of this technique.

Another approach is to have students write a resume.[41] This is of double value because it is also useful in obtaining the placement.

Guide Students to a Learning Plan

In the process of defining the skills and experience that he or she has, the student also begins to outline those which he or she lacks or wishes to pursue. Thus, self-awareness leads logically into the development of a learning plan. The companion *Student Guide* to this *Handbook* sets out the full range of likely learning possibilities—developing job competences, building interpersonal skills, exploring careers, etc.[42] With these or other programmatic learning objectives the faculty member can guide the student to develop specific learning objectives for the field placement. This may be difficult. Your student may feel that he has no idea of what he wants to do or learn, or cannot choose among the wide range of possibilities. In order to help the student focus on some clear and realizable objectives you may try several different approaches.

- Invent some student profiles. Describe specific placements. Ask your students to analyze these, and suggest learning plans for the student or potential learning outcomes for the placements.
- Ask the students themselves to develop some case studies, and then analyze them.
- Give the students a list of possible placements, and ask them to eliminate the ones that do not interest them and give reasons why.
- Ask the students to think of a situation in which they felt frustrated, and then analyze the situation and identify those skills or abilities that would have minimized the frustration.
- Have the students work with pencil and paper, and write down any goal they might have (e.g., learning to fly a kite or become a doctor). Then ask the students to write down carefully the steps they would have to take to get to their goal.

The intended outcome of these activities is a completed learning plan. This learning plan, a general one, however, will be tempered by the realities of the field experience.

---

[41] See "Prepare students to obtain a position," pp. 39-40.

[42] See Chapter II, p. 18, for the list of the categories of learning objectives taken from *College-Sponsored Experiential Learning–A CAEL Student Guide*.

Brief Student Profiles and Learning Plans

Problem: Student X is a sophomore liberal arts major. She has never worked and admits to having no idea of what she wants to study or pursue as a career.

Available placement experience: A well-supervised position as a mailroom/messenger clerk at a large public relations firm.

Suggested learning plan: Student takes the position as a vehicle to develop in three areas, as follows:

- *Career exploration.* Student will systematically observe at least four different career routes available at the firm, categorizing the various abilities and backgrounds required of each career type, the potential for future growth of each, the advantages and disadvantages of each, and the extent to which each is limited to public relations type work. Student will meet with personnel director (who has agreed to do so), who will, in turn, help arrange interviews with selected personnel.
- *Learning about work.* Student will compare work to her experience as a student and as a family member. Are its demands, systems, routines, rewards, and human dynamics different or similar? What aspects of work (this job) are difficult or frustrating? Which aspects are preferable? What is a good worker? Does she consider herself one? Want to be one?
- *Broadening horizons.* Student will identify and describe at least two individuals, one issue, and one experience that are new to her and, in effect, have broadened her horizons.

Problem: Student Y is a part-time graduate student and a full-time police officer. He is bright, ambitious, rapidly moving up the ladder, enrolled in a master of public administration program because he recognizes that an advanced degree will enhance his status, but does not see it having any other special value for him.

Suggested learning plan: The student will aim to increase his awareness of his own and others' administrative styles in order to become a more sensitive and effective administrator (his own objective). Specifically he will focus on two areas:

- *Specific job competences.* To improve administrative skills, he will identify six important decisions made in his precinct, at least two of which he personally made. He will describe and analyze the participants, process, reactions, and outcomes of different administrative approaches and begin to categorize (and thus to strengthen) his administrative skills.
- *Interpersonal skills.* He will analyze the specific role of the interpersonal skills of the decision maker in each of the above decisions, and work to understand his own strengths and weaknesses accordingly.

Problem: Student Z is a data processing major, concentrating in computer programming. She has had one placement as a data input clerk in which she has confirmed her interest in her field and developed a number of interpersonal and work-related skills. She wants her next placement to be as a junior programmer, but the only available programmer positions are out-of-town. This means she—a commuting student who lives with her family—must live away from home for the first time.

Suggested learning plan:

- *Specific job competences.* Student will apply her classroom learning in programming, testing theory against practice. She will aim to learn the specific approaches the firm uses and the kinds of demands which the firm's operational departments place on the data processing department.
- *Career exploration.* Student will assess her interest in business (as opposed to scientific) programming. She will also examine the various career routes represented by her colleagues, e.g., senior programmer or data processing manager.
- *Broadening horizons and learning from the local environment.* Student will be forced to live on her own and thus will have to learn how to find a place to live; how to manage her apartment, meals, laundering, and other needs; how to establish new social contacts. In addition, she will be asked to describe the new community in which she lives and how it differs from her home community.

Help Students Anticipate Changes and Difficulties

The best-laid learning plan may meet obstacles in the field experience. The faculty member may alert the student to the fact that the learning plan itself may have to be modified in some way in the face of special features of the placement. A student may wish to develop specific job competences—for example, in the use of a certain kind of computer—but the position may not allow it. On the other hand, the position may require the student to direct some part-time employees and thus permit learning supervisory skills. The student must also be aware that interpersonal problems may arise that can undermine the entire learning experience. You should help the student understand that:

- The placement task(s) may change.
- The student's own objectives may change.
- Unanticipated learning prospects may emerge.

In addition, you will want the student to recognize that there are at least three different sources of problems in the placement, and that he should try to make a distinction in these sources, as follows:

- His own personal expectations and needs.
- The tasks and role of the position itself.
- The overall system which impinges both on himself and on his functional tasks.

You should reinforce the importance of his contacting the college, if the situation is not what he expected.

Prepare Students to Obtain a Position[43]

Aware of his or her own abilities and conscious of what he or she wishes to learn, the student still needs to get the placement. In most cases, the student will have to

---

[43]This task has special relevance for the young student, but you may also find it helpful with mature students who have not had successful job-getti.ng experiences.

participate directly in obtaining the position. The student may have to develop the placement from scratch or—even where the college has developed the placement—may have to meet the agency's requirements for an application, or an interview, or tests.

You need to help the student analyze her strengths with respect to the desired position and project her strengths. One useful tool is the student's resume, which she may have developed as a part of self-assessment.

The resume is a two-pronged tool; it forces a student to assess her abilities, and it communicates these abilities on paper. The process of developing it should be thorough and analytical and the written product should be concise and affirmative. You can draw out a student's abilities and experiences, clarifying that strengths and weaknesses are relative—depending on the situation and subject to improvement (or deterioration).

Your task is to facilitate the student's reaching a fair and positive self-assessment. Students often have somewhat distorted self-images: they may be totally devoid of confidence or brimming with it. Compiling a resume is a helpful way of recording their real strengths and experiences. A resume should present the most favorable image of the person and should include all significant experiences—both paid and volunteer work experiences. In the absence of paid work experiences, activities such as child care (baby sitting) or administrative work (directing the high school yearbook staff) can be drawn on effectively.

The resume can help build confidence for the interview. Often the interview is very frightening to many students and is a major stumbling block to students in obtaining a desired opportunity. Because of this, it is very important that students have some practice in interviewing so that they are able to express their own ideas under questioning, and to respond to unanticipated questions. Practice interviewing between students, between students and faculty, interviewing with an unknown interviewer (which simulates actual interviewing in an office) and videotaping the practice interview are very helpful techniques.

STUDENT PLACEMENT

Determine the Matching and Placement Process

Once the student is prepared, your task is to link the student to an experience in which he or she can realize at least some of his or her objectives and in which the experience and the student's abilities promise a degree of success. Certain of the aspects of the program outlined earlier in this chapter (for example, the faculty member to whom the student reports) may dictate the procedures which support the matching process. If you have a program of any complexity at all, it is important to give some attention to the matching process. The actual process of matching the student to a position and getting the student placed requires consideration of a number of questions:

- How does the student know what positions are available?[44]

---

[44]If you have a sizable number of positions, you may wish to consider classifying them to facilitate the selection and placement process. For example, you might organize them according to major field, skill-level prerequisites, locale, or type of payment. Some programs use a formal classification system, with a number denoting field/industry, prefixes denoting special requirements (e.g., foreign language; out-of-town), and suffixes denoting type of payment (e.g., volunteer, stipend, College Work Study, fully paid).

- How much information do you want the student to have about those positions?
- What role can the student play in selecting his own position?
- What role do the faculty members need to play, and which faculty members are to be involved?
- What role does the employer want to play?
- Does the agency want to interview a range of students and want to select from among a range of students?
- Does the agency want veto power, or is it willing to accept anyone whom the college recommends?

Carefully clarifying the procedure and matching a student to a position is very important. Failure to clarify those procedures could mean that three students may be simultaneously knocking on one employer's door for the same position, or that one desirable position has no student applicants at all.

In the matching process, you are a middleman or broker, linking the student and the employing agency. You need to serve each party well by explaining clearly the requirements of the program in which they will operate, and by providing each with as much information as possible about the other's resources and expectations.

V. Monitoring Experiential Learning

Monitor the students' experiential learning
- Determine what will be monitored
- Identify who will monitor
- Decide how the monitoring will be done
- Consider when the monitoring will be done
- Examine the role of the agency supervisor

Once the student is on the placement, the roles shift. You have provided the primary input prior to the placement; now the student and the agency supervisor assume prominence. The student must be prepared to seek out and to recognize learning opportunities, also to identify those opportunities that depart from the preset learning plan, to recognize problems (see Chapter IV), and to alert the faculty advisor to them. Ideally, the agency supervisor will be knowledgeable about and sympathetic to the program, and will be prepared to facilitate the student's learning, and, when necessary, to contact the faculty advisor about problems.

The process of monitoring the student's progress on the placement poses several questions:

What Do You Want to Monitor?

The answer to this depends on your program and its objectives, but includes monitoring the student's progress toward achieving his learning plan, including any problems he may encounter—conceptual, personal, financial, or cultural.

Who Does the Monitoring?

Monitoring may be the responsibility of the student's faculty advisor, or of the staff member who developed the placement, or of the staff member responsible for the geographic area in which the placement is located—or of a combination of such persons.

The bulk of monitoring lies with the student and the agency supervisor—each of whom have different perceptions of the student's progress and problems in the field experience. Those expected to participate in monitoring should be thoroughly familiar with the program, the student's learning objectives, and procedures for dealing with either departures from the learning objectives, or problems, should they develop. (The worksheet at the end of this chapter is suggested as a guide to monitoring the experience.)

How Is the Monitoring Performed?

Monitoring can range from a telephone call to several site visits. It can rely solely on the student's keeping a journal with no faculty contact during the placement period, or it can require the student to attend a weekly seminar. Most monitoring involves a combination of vehicles, which may include the following:

- Telephone conversations with the student and/or the agency supervisors
- On-site visit
- Individual conference with the student
- Concurrent seminars for groups of students (weekly sessions, a weekend conference, or other time arrangements)
- Papers, reports, or journals submitted by the student periodically during placement
- Programmed learning materials, and a specific schedule for submitting assignments
- Written evaluations by the agency supervisor

When Is the Monitoring Done?

The question of the frequency of the monitoring depends both on your staff and financial resources and on the parameters of the program. In some highly structured programs, students attend weekly seminars and are observed biweekly on-site. In other programs, unless a problem arises, there is no contact until the student completes the placement. Most programs build in at least one or two meetings. These are best scheduled toward the middle of the placement or, in general, late enough to allow the student to acclimate himself, but early enough to be able to forestall or help deal with problems. (A post-placement conference, discussed in Chapter VI as an assessment vehicle, affords time to evaluate the entire experience.)

You may find the sample worksheet, "Interim Placement Assessment," helpful in monitoring a student's progress. (See p. 45.) This is a two-page form designed specially for an on-site visit or telephone check. The first page has a set of general questions; the second page is a checklist geared to a student's individualized learning plan. You will probably want to attach a copy of the student's own learning plan to the worksheet. The same or a similar form could be used for final assessment.

A NOTE ABOUT THE AGENCY SUPERVISOR

In the ideal placement, the agency supervisor is thoroughly familiar with the field experience program and its educational objectives, and functions as a faculty surrogate on-site. In general, however, you will find that you cannot rely heavily, if at all, on the supervisor, and you may encounter any number of problems: the individual may be only a mediocre supervisor; he may have had the student intern program imposed upon him; he may feel that the program undermines productivity; he may worry that confidential items will be breached; and even the most sympathetic supervisor will have other demands on his time. Therefore, you must try not only to develop alternatives to the agency supervisor as a monitor of student learning (e.g., student self-monitoring, or a check by an interested member of the agency staff such as the personnel manager who agreed to the program), but also to strengthen the supervisor's support of the program. To do the latter, you, being sensitive to the problems of the supervisor, need to try to inform him about the program, to interest him in its educational and personal merits. to encourage him to

help resolve student problems, to praise him to his superiors, and generally to help him to see the program as a positive feature and way of strengthening his own position.[45]

[45]William Ramsay has a very helpful discussion of the role of the agency supervisor in an article of the same name in *Implementing Field Experience Education*, the Summer 1974 issue of *New Directions for Higher Education* (John Duley, Ed.).

WORKSHEET: INTERIM PLACEMENT ASSESSMENT

Student Name: _____ Field Assignment: _____

Major: _____ Agency (Name & Address): _____

Class: _____ _____

Agency Supervisor: _____

Agency satisfaction with student performance of actual work functions.

Overall:	Excellent ☐	Good ☐	Fair ☐
Attendance and punctuality	Excellent ☐	Good ☐	Fair ☐
Reliability	Excellent ☐	Good ☐	Fair ☐
Peer Relations	Excellent ☐	Good ☐	Fair ☐
Supervisory Relations	Excellent ☐	Good ☐	Fair ☐
Understanding of Position	Excellent ☐	Good ☐	Fair ☐
Initiative	Excellent ☐	Good ☐	Fair ☐

Are there modifications the agency would like to make in assignment program?

Comments _____

_____

_____

_____

Student satisfaction with position:

Overall Excellent ☐ Good ☐ Fair ☐

Does it have the features he expected? _____

Any difficulties with peer or supervisory relations? _____

Is there any modification he would like to make in position? _____

Comments _____

_____

_____

_____

"Extracurricular" aspects (especially if out-of-town placement):

Is the student having any personal, social, financial, housing, or other difficulties? _____

_____

_____

WORKSHEET: INTERIM PLACEMENT ASSESSMENT (Cont'd.)

Student progress toward fulfilling learning plan*

1. Specific Job Competences _____

_____

_____

2. Career Exploration _____

_____

_____

3. Broadening Horizons _____

_____

_____

4. Learning About Work _____

_____

_____

5. Interpersonal Skills _____

_____

_____

6. Learning from the Local Environment _____

_____

_____

7. Taking Responsibility _____

_____

_____

8. Research Skills _____

_____

_____

9. Other Goals _____

_____

*Attach copy of student's own learning plan.

VI. Follow-Up: Assessment And Integration Of Learning

Assess experiential learning
- Clarify what will be assessed
- Identify when assessment will take place
- Decide who will do the assessment
- Determine how assessment will be done
- Consider how or if to credit and record learning

Follow-up
- Integrate experiential learning into overall educational scheme

Now that the student has completed his field experience, he needs a vehicle to help him reflect on, analyze, and express what he has learned. In the traditional classroom setting, we normally rely on a written test. In an experiential situation —filled with unanticipated learning and uncontrollable constraints—the assessment process is, in itself, a challenge. And, it is, if anything, more essential than assessment of classroom learning—precisely because of the complex factors and uncontrolled environment. It is more difficult for the student to recognize and articulate what he has learned because textbook assignments or classroom lesson plans did not order the learning parameters. And, until the student has reflected upon and made sense out of what he has learned, neither he nor the instructor can be sure of what has been learned.

To best define the assessment process for your students, you must deal with several basic issues:

What Do You Want to Assess?

Your assessment process will be geared to measuring the extent to which the student fulfilled the individual learning plan which he or she developed (see Chapter IV) in the context of your program's objectives (see Chapter II). But, precisely because one is dealing with the experiential setting, assessment needs to be open to unanticipated learning, as well as to the established objectives. In addition, you may wish to assess the student's performance and job-related skills, as defined by the agency supervisor and/or as demonstrated in a "product" (e.g., an art student's portfolio, an engineering student's blueprints).

When Do You Want to Assess?

The most common pattern is to conduct a comprehensive assessment at the conclusion of the placement. In addition, you may choose to arrange an interim assessment, probably through the monitoring process, and you may structure on-going assessment through regular reporting. On the other hand, it is possible to develop an assessment approach that is integrated with subsequent course work or that takes place considerably after the experience in order to determine the lasting impact of the learning.

Who Will Assess?

There are several potential assessors:

- The faculty advisor
- The placement coordinator (if a different person from the faculty advisor)
- The agency supervisor
- Other recognized experts in the field
- The student.

At least three of these persons, by virtue of their connection to the field placement, have an established interest in the assessment. Ideally, the assessment process will somehow incorporate all the participants. For example, the faculty advisor may do the final grading, but may use other inputs—the observations of a placement coordinator; the performance-oriented evaluation of the agency supervisor; the result of an oral examination of the student by an expert (e.g., the student who spent a summer in France, working in a hotel was subsequently examined by a French instructor); and the self-assessment of the student. The student, who is genuinely engaged in self-assessment, is especially important here since he or she may develop life-long skills that will permit systematic analysis of what has been learned from experience.

How to Assess?

The assessment of experiential learning is at an early stage of development. Among the evolving approaches, the following are often used in combination:[46]

- Performance tests, which include direct observation of a lesson taught by a student teacher, or, even more common, the road test for a driver's license.
- Simulations, including management games, role playing, case study analyses, and in-basket tests.
- Interviews, both structured and unstructured, by individual, by panels, in-depth oral examinations, and oral reports.
- Ratings, rankings, and checklists (often the type relied on for supervisor's evaluations).
- Product assessment, including the evaluation of poems, photographs, or drawings, as well as of more conventional products, such as journals or reports, or of an elaborate "portfolio" (a compilation of several "products").[47]
- Student self-assessment.

Whatever approach or approaches are used in assessment, you will want to ensure that the methods are appropriate for the learning objective; for example, a simple rating checklist may suit the agency supervisor's evaluation of the student's

---

[46]For a fuller discussion of these methods and a helpful bibliography, see Joan Knapp and Amiel Sharon, *A Compendium of Assessment Techniques*. Also useful are two other CAEL Handbooks, *Teaching and Assessing Interpersonal Competence*, by Paul Breen, Thomas F. Donlon, and Urban Whitaker, and *Expert Assessment of Experiential Learning*, by Richard R. Reilly, et al.

[47]One has to be prepared to recognize that elements of confidentiality can limit the extent to which a student can document sensitive or classified items.

attendance, dependability, etc., but may be too narrow for the process of assessing whether the student has met his objectives to improve his decision-making skills. Furthermore, you will want the procedure not merely to be evaluative but to have its own educational value. Finally, a measure of the student's learning may be how many new and stimulating questions the experience has left him with.

How to Credit and Record the Student's Learning?

You have to consider two related questions: how, or if, to evaluate the student's performance (e.g., will you use A, B, C's, Pass/Fail, or narrative comments?); and how to describe your assessment on the student's transcript. Regarding the second issue, you need to consider whether to record the student's internship in the mayor's office simply as a political science course, as an internship in political science, or as a generalized field experience. Some of these questions will follow the organizational arrangement of your college's field experience offerings; others will have to be decided independently and may require changes—for example, in the method of producing transcripts. Regardless of the way in which this process is carried out, do keep in mind the importance of the transcript in helping the student communicate what he has learned to potential graduate schools, employers, etc.

A separate question that may be as yet unresolved at your institution is whether or not to grant credit for field experience. Whereas the trend is to do so, many respected programs do not offer academic credit for graduation. Credit does become an important factor to be reckoned with—it enhances the status of the programs, but it also increases the internal competition for control. Where there is no formal credit, there are likely to be fewer institutional restraints on the faculty member. On the other hand, credit does function as an important motivator of students. Without that motivation, they may press their own priorities, such as high salaries, as opposed to educational outcomes.

* * * * *

Beyond assessment, the task is to aid the student in building on his new learning, reinforcing it, expanding it, and generally revising his personal learning plan as a result of what he has learned through the field placement. There are two levels at which this can be accomplished: the individual student pursuing his revised learning program; an organized curriculum geared to capitalize on the student's experiential learning.

The first level, relying on the individual student, requires the advisor to guide the student to restate his learning objectives, develop new ones, and begin to select appropriate learning vehicles—classes, other field placements, extracurricular activities, etc.

The second level is clearly more ambitious, but not impossible. A simple strategy for encouraging standard classes to reinforce and build on experiential learning requires that instructors receive brief descriptions of the field experiences students have had. Instructors may then try to use the students' experiences as illustrations, or urge students to write research papers linked to their field experience. For example, a secretarial major who worked in a law firm typing pool takes a psychology course on returning to the college. The psychology instructor asks the

student in class about the psychological impact of working in a pool, as opposed to working for an individual; he later suggests that she do a term paper on group vs. individual motivation, possibly returning to the law firm to do some interviewing for the paper.

A more elaborate design might involve specific course sequences in which an introductory course, say in business management, teaches the concepts of organization charts and asks students to develop an organization chart of the agency in which they intern and to analyze whether the formal organization chart reflects the real power or relationship in the agency. A concurrent seminar, or one following placement, could help guide the student through the process of analysis, reinforcing the learning he has applied in the experiential setting.

Another approach involves administrative, as well as curricular, structure for reinforcement. A team of faculty members—perhaps inter-disciplinary or perhaps including instructional faculty, counselor, and field placement advisor—helps the student set his learning plan and then regularly and systematically monitors the student's progress toward his goals.

VII. On-Going Program Evaluation

Once we have developed and implemented our programs, we have a continuing responsibility to evaluate them in the light of our program goals and educational objectives. As members of the teaching faculty or the administrative staff, we have very little knowledge of our experience with the concepts and methods of program or educational evaluation. This chapter cannot provide that expertise. It will explain some concepts, suggest relevant questions for which to seek answers, and provide a list of program aspects on which information may need to be collected.

The primary purpose of evaluating an educational program is to provide information for decisions about it. The decisions we have in mind are not primarily those regarding the continuation or termination of a program. Evaluation in order to develop greater congruence between goals, objectives, and outcomes is what is needed. To do this you should establish regular mechanisms for gathering information and for using it to assess how well your program is meeting its stated expectations. Insofar as possible, the process by which you obtain the information you use in making your judgments should meet the criteria of objectivity, reliability, validity, practicality, and utility. It is your responsibility to be sure that whatever process you follow in collecting the information is ethical and honors the confidentiality of information and the individual rights of privacy.

Not only will you want to continually monitor how well your program is fulfilling its goals, you will want also to continue improving, developing, and modifying various aspects of the program. You will want, among other things, to fashion better techniques to prepare students for their placements, improved methods of monitoring their progress in the field, and refined ways to assess the learning acquired. In conjunction with these efforts, you may consider pretesting materials and using other developed evaluative approaches.[48]

Assessing Overall Effectiveness

One method to use in assessing the overall effectiveness and thoroughness of your program is to systematically review it using the "Checklist for Guiding Students' Experiential Learning" on pages x-xi of this *Handbook*. To probe even more deeply, ask questions from such different perspectives as: Which college or university institutional goals are most closely related to the program objectives? Have the program objectives been stated in terms of the actual performances intended as the outcomes of the experience? Have assessment procedures been identified or designed that measure these performance objectives? Have students been encouraged to develop personal learning objectives? Have adequate provisions been made in the program for this development? Have self-assessment procedures been designed for these objectives? Are they useful? Has a way been developed to identify and report the learning opportunities provided by each placement? To what extent does the program provide for and acknowledge the range of potential levels of learning or skill development which exists?

---

[48]Scarvia B. Anderson, Samuel Ball, Richard T. Murphy, and Associates. *Encyclopedia of Educational Evaluation*.

Ultimately you may be asking, and may well be asked by an accreditation association or by your own administration: "Does the program do what it claims to do?" "Does it do what others expect it to do?" "Can we afford to continue it?" Therefore, you may need to collect specific information on some or all of the program components listed below.

Program Components On Which Information May Need To Be Collected[49]

1. Student application, selection, and placement processes
2. Preparation of students
3. On-site orientation of students
4. Monitoring of progress of the student while in the field
5. Educational value of the placement
6. Relationships with the field supervisors: faculty-supervisor and student-supervisor
7. Quality of work done by the student in the placement
8. Follow-up and integration of the experience and learning into the student's academic program
9. Assessment of the student's learning and the quality of the feedback provided to the student.
10. Cost
11. Faculty resources
12. Recording and transcripting practices

We make the suggestions in this chapter because, like your students, as your program develops you may want to modify your program goals, educational objectives, and procedures. The changing circumstances of your community and institution, the developments in the field of experiential education, and what you learn through experience will require that kind of flexibility.

---

[49]For a more completely developed outline of program components and for a description of "operational model" development that could serve as a very effective method of program evaluation see Warren W. Willingham, and Hadley S. Nesbitt (Eds.), *Implementing a Program for Assessing Experiential Learning*, pp. 5–9.

References

Anderson, Scarvia, B.; Ball, Samuel; Murphy, Richard T.; and Associates. *Encyclopedia of educational evaluation.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1975.

Birenbaum, William. *Overlive: Power, poverty and the university.* New York: Dell, 1969.

Bloom, Benjamin S. (Ed.) *Taxonomy of educational objectives. Handbook I: Cognitive domain.* New York: David McKay, 1965.

Breen, Paul; Donlon, Thomas F.; and Whitaker, Urban. *Learning and assessing interpersonal competence–A CAEL student guide.* Princeton, N.J.: CAEL, Educational Testing Service, 1977.

Breen, Paul; Donlon, Thomas F.; and Whitaker, Urban. *Teaching and assessing interpersonal competence–A CAEL handbook.* Princeton, N.J.: CAEL, Educational Testing Service, 1977.

Coleman, James S. *Youth: Transition to adulthood–Report on youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974.

Coleman, James S. Differences between experiential and classroom learning, in Morris T. Keeton and Associates, *Experiential learning: Rationale, characteristics, and assessment.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1976, pp. 49-61.

Cummins, Glenn. National Institute of Social Sciences, Grant Proposal, Dallas County Community College, 1974.

Duley, John (Issue Ed.) *Implementing field experience education.* New Directions for Higher Education No. 6. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Summer 1974.

Freire, Paulo. *Pedagogy of the oppressed.* New York: Herder and Herder, 1972.

Gibbons, Maurice. Walkabout: Searching for the right passage from childhood and school. *Phi Delta Kappan,* May 1974, pp. 596-602.

Gilkey, Langdon. *Naming the whirlwind: The renewal of God-language.* Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1969.

Harrison, Roger, and Hopkins, Richard L. The design of cross-cultural training: An alternative to the university model. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science,* 1969, vol. 3, no. 4, pp. 431-459.

Keeton, Morris T., and Associates. *Experiential learning: Rationale, characteristics, and assessment.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1976.

Knapp, Joan, and Sharon, Amiel. *A compendium of assessment techniques.* Princeton, N.J.: CAEL, Educational Testing Service, 1975.

Krathwohl, David R.; Bloom, Benjamin S.; and Masia, Bertram B. *Taxonomy of educational objectives. Handbook II: Affective domain.* New York: David McKay, 1964.

Nader, Ralph. Unpublished speech given at the 1974 Society of Field Experience Education National Conference, Atlanta, Ga., Oct. 13, 1974, transcript p. 10.

National Commission for Cooperative Education. *Colleges, universities and community colleges offering cooperative education programs.* New York: National Commission for Cooperative Education, 1971.

Nesbitt, Hadley. *College-sponsored experiential learning–A CAEL student guide.* Princeton, N.J.: CAEL, Educational Testing Service, 1977.

Ramsay, William R. Role of the agency supervisor, in John Duley (Issue Ed.), *Implementing field experience education.* New Directions for Higher Education No. 6. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Summer 1974, pp. 45-54.

Reilly, Richard R., et al. *Expert assessment of experiential learning–A CAEL handbook.* Princeton, N.J.: CAEL, Educational Testing Service, 1977.

Sexton, Robert, and Ungerer, Richard. *Rationales for experiential education.* ERIC/Higher Education Research Report No. 3. Washington, D.C.: American Association for Higher Education, 1975.

Sigmon, R. *A notebook on service learning.* Raleigh: North Carolina Internship Office, October 1972.

Willingham, Warren W., and Nesbitt, Hadley S. (Eds.) *Implementing a program for assessing experiential learning.* A CAEL Project Report. Princeton, N.J.: CAEL, Educational Testing Service, 1976.

Zauderer, D.G. *Urban internships in higher education.* ERIC/Higher Education Research Report No. 9. Washington, D.C.: American Association for Higher Education, 1973.

Appendix A.

Resources For Placement Development, Student Preparation, and Advisement

PUBLICATIONS

Alternative Higher Education. Semiannual journal edited by William A. McCallum. Human Sciences Press, 72 Fifth Ave., New York, NY 10011.

Directory of Washington internships. National Center for Public Service Internships in cooperation with Mount Vernon College, Suite 601, 1735 Eye St., N.W., Washington, DC 20006.

Duley, John (Ed.) *Implementing field experience education.* New Directions for Higher Education, No. 6. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Summer 1974.

Eis, Jennifer, and Ward, Don. *Taking off: An organizational handbook and comprehensive worldwide resource guide for non-traditional higher education.* Lansing, Mich.: Center for Alternatives In/To Higher Education, Michigan State University, 1975.

Invest yourself. The Commission on Voluntary Service and Action, 475 Riverside Dr., New York, NY 10017.

Jobs in social change. Social and Educational Research Foundation, 3416 Sawson St., Philadelphia, PA 19104.

Koberg, Don, and Bagnall, Jim. *The universal traveler: A soft-systems guide to creativity, problem solving, and the process of reaching goals.* Los Altos, Calif.: William Kaufman, 1974.

National register of internships and experiential education. Response, Experiential Education Information Service, Suite 604, 1211 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Nesbitt, Hadley. *College-sponsored experiential learning–A CAEL student guide.* Princeton, N.J.: CAEL, Educational Testing Service, 1977.

Pfeiffer, J. William, and Jones, John E. *Handbook of structured experiences for human relations training* (four volumes). La Jolla, Calif.: University Associates, 1974.

Secussa sourcebook: A guide for advisors of U.S. students planning an overseas experience. Washington, D.C.: The National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, April, 1975.

Shelton, C. Kathryn (Ed.) *Options for learning: A catalogue of off-campus learning in Kentucky.* Lexington: Office for Experiential Education, University of Kentucky, Fall, 1974.

Simon, Sidney B.; Howe, Leland W.; and Kirschenbaum, Howard. *Values clarification: A handbook of practical strategies for teachers and students.* New York: Hart Publishing Co., 1972.

Somewhere else: A living-learning catalog. The Center for Curriculum Design, The Swallow Press, 1138 S. Wabash Ave., Chicago, IL 60605.

Spiritual community guide. Spiritual Community, Box 1080, San Rafael, CA 94902.

Volunteer in Canada. Canadian Bureau of International Education, 151 Slater, Ottawa, Ontario, KIP 5H3.

Whole world handbook. Council on International Educational Exchange, 777 United Nations Plaza, New York, NY 10017.

Work force. Vocations for Social Change, 5951 Canning St., Oakland, CA 94609.

The yellow pages of undergraduate innovations. New Rochelle, N.Y.: The Comell Center for Improvement of Undergraduate Education, Change Magazine, 1974.

ASSOCIATIONS, ORGANIZATIONS, AND PROJECTS

You may wish to contact some of the groups listed below for further information or materials and/or to affiliate with some of them. Trade and professional associations, their conventions, and their journals are very useful sources of information. Federal, state, and local governmental agencies and legislative bodies run internship programs and compile information on special student work programs.

ACTION, MAIATICO Building, 800-814 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. (ACTION combines VISTA and the Peace Corps, along with the University Year for Action Program).

Association for Innovation in Higher Education, c/o Clark H. Bouwman, P.O. Box 12560, St. Petersburg, FL 33733.

Association of Voluntary Action Scholars, Box G-55, Boston College, Chestnut Hill, MA 02167.

CAEL, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, NJ 08540 (through June 30, 1977). (Thereafter: CAEL, American City Building, Suite 403, Columbia, MD 21044.)

Cooperative Education Association, c/o Drexel University, Philadelphia, PA 19104.

Experiment in International Living, Brattleboro, VT 05301.

Interversitas, Northeastern Illinois University, c/o Reynold Feldman, Director, 5500 N. St. Louis Ave., Chicago, IL 60625.

National Center for Educational Brokering, c/o Francis U. Macy, Director, 405 Oak St., Syracuse, NY 13203.

National Center for Public Service Internships, 1735 Eye St., N.W., Washington, DC 20006.

National Center for Voluntary Action, 1785 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

National Manpower Institute, Suite 201, 1211 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Society for Field Experience Education, c/o Pamela Tate, President, Director, Innovative Studies and Fieldwork, Student Union, State University of New York, New Paltz, NY 12501.

Society for Intercultural Education Training and Research, c/o David Hoppes, 107 MIB, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA 15260.

Washington Center for Learning Alternatives, 1503 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Work-Study Development Project, c/o William Ramsay, Director of Labor Program, Berea College, Berea, KY 40403.

Appendix B.
Performance Analysis Report

The Field Study staff of Justin Morrill College has identified seven skill clusters in which students have opportunities to develop increased competence while they are on field placements. These skill clusters are:

1. Information Source Development
2. a. Cultural Understanding
   b. Environmental Understanding
3. Interpersonal Communication
4. Commitment to Persons and Relationships
5. Decision Making
6. Self-Understanding/Values Clarification
7. Self-Reliance

These were developed from the experience of students in the program and from the work of Harrison and Hopkins as reported in their 1967 article.* Prior to the identification of these skill clusters students were required to keep journals while in the field and to have them read by the Return Seminar leader: The staff had always been uncomfortable with this practice, feeling that (1) it was an invasion of privacy to read student journals, (2) they were not journals in the true sense because they were written for instructors to read, and (3) the entries were not consistently helpful since they were not focused on programmatic or individual learning objectives. In discussing this problem and the assessment of experiential learning with Dr. Paul Dressel of the Office of Institutional Research of Michigan State University, he suggested that we examine Dr. John Flanagan's "Critical Incident Technique"** as a model for the development of a self-evaluation instrument. We adapted Flanagan's technique for our program, but we changed it significantly—he collected data from observers of the behavior of others, whereas we developed a means for the self-reporting and analysis of behavior. We acknowledge our indebtedness to him for many of the ideas in the self-evaluation reporting form which we developed. This technique has often been referred to by us and others as a "Critical Incident Technique," but it seems more appropriate, because of the differences between Dr. Flanagan's original model and its purposes and our adaptation, to give our adaptation a more functional label. We have chosen to call it a Performance Analysis Report (PAR).

The following instructions for using the PAR are given to students.

To write a Performance Analysis Report, select an incident or event that happened to you and then identify the most appropriate skill cluster connected with that event (decision making or cultural understanding, for example). Be sure that your incident is, a *single* incident and identify only *one* skill cluster. State the skill at the beginning of the report, either at the top of the page or in the first sentence.

Secondly, state what was at issue in the incident. Was it a problem to be solved? A decision to be made? Action to be taken? A mission or task to be

---

*Roger Harrison, Richard L. Hopkins, "The Design of Cross-cultural Training: An Alternative to the University Model," *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 1967, Vol. 3, No. 4, pp. 431–459.

**John Flanagan, "The Critical Incident Technique," *Psychological Bulletin*, 1954, Vol. 51, No. 4, pp. 327–358.

accomplished? Controversy to be settled? Opinion to be arrived at or an understanding/agreement to be reached? Be sure to say *specifically* what was at issue. In other words, say, "I had to decide whether to obey my supervisor or comfort the child," instead of "I had a decision to make."

Next, describe all of the relevant surrounding circumstances, and provide all necessary background information so that the reader will fully understand the incident. This may include place, occasion, social contexts, time of day, weather and people. When you mention people you may need to include age, occupation, sex, attitudes, nature of their involvement in the incident, their relationships to you, to each other, etc.

After providing all the background information and explaining the situation, describe as specifically as possible *what you did* in response to the above circumstances, particularly in terms of the skill you were trying to apply.

Finally, write a brief analysis of the incident. (a) Indicate in what ways this incident was a successful or unsuccessful demonstration of the skill you were trying to apply and why, and (b) write a summary statement describing the following for the skill used:

1. *Information Source Development:* Summarize the process which you went through in the development of your information source or network. You may wish to present this analysis diagramatically in a flow chart.
2. *Cultural/Environmental Understanding:* What understanding or insights into that culture/environment or into your own culture/environment did this incident give you ?
3. *Interpersonal Communication or Commitment to Persons and Relationships:* Summarize the developmental process in the communication or the development of commitment.
4. *Decision Making:* Summarize, insofar as possible, the information source development that took place, the alternatives and consequences you considered, your values that influenced the decision, and what kind of decision-making strategy you were engaged in.
5. *Self-Understanding:* Summarize the insight about yourself which the incident provided, including the values and goals that became clarified.
6. *Self-Reliance:* Summarize how the incident helped you develop more self-reliance.

There are two types of Performance Analysis Reports, newspaper and narrative. The newspaper type covers all of the above points but does not go into great detail about your feelings and attitudes as the incident unfolds nor does it provide as much background information as the narrative type. It covers the facts as completely and concisely as possible. The narrative type is as thorough and detailed as possible, somewhat resembling a segment out of your autobiography, including your feelings, thoughts, and attitudes and, as best as you can judge, those of others. You will go into greater detail in background information and your description of the surrounding circumstances. Generally, the newspaper type Performance Analysis Report averages 1½ pages, typed, and the narrative type averages 3 pages, typed.

Points to Remember: (a) Always *state* only one cluster, (b) make sure that your description is about a specific incident, not about a general condition or an

on-going problem; and (c) include an analysis at the end, including whether or not it was a successful demonstration of the skill and why.

The following Performance Analysis Report was submitted by a student doing a field placement in a Day Care Center as a teaching aide:

Interpersonal Communication:

I wanted to get two older children to give up their sled in order that two younger children could have a chance to go down the hill. And I wanted afterward to mend the damage done by me in my interpersonal communication.

It was during the time we spend outside; most of the children were sledding. There was about 10 minutes left to be outside. Two younger children came up to me and told me they wanted to go sledding but there weren't any open sleds left and the bigger kids had them all. The two younger children were about 3 years old. I had been pushing the two older girls (about 5 years old) down the hills several times. All the children know each other, they aren't segregated by age. These four children knew me pretty well by then and I felt there has been a trust developed with them. I am a person in power and authority in this case; however the children at the center are given the freedom to express themselves openly, free to express anger at adults. I had been given no orders as to how to handle such an incident.

First I went over to the older girls and told them that two younger children hadn't had a chance to sled yet and there weren't any sleds not being used. I asked them if they would give up their sled so these kids could have a chance to sled before it was time to go in.

One of the older children, Clay, replied, "Well, me and Kristen want to go down and we had it first." I hesitated and then said, "Well, how about if you all go on it?" Then one of the younger children replied, "Me and Amy want to go down alone." At this point the older kids were sitting on the sled and I said to them all, "That seems fair that Amy and you want to go down once alone, what do you think?" (to Clay and Kristen). Clay gave me a definite "no" while Kristen wandered away. I said things like, "Come on Clay let the younger kids have a chance on the sled by themselves." I was growing more and more frustrated. Clay didn't get off and I continued trying to coax her until I got mad and said, "Clay get off now, I mean it! And let the younger kids have the sled!" She got off when I raised my voice and walked away very angry. About 4 minutes later it was time to go in. Clay said she wouldn't come in. She was sitting by herself. I went over to her and said, "You're mad at me, huh?" She said, "Yes!" And I said, "You don't want to come in because you're mad at me, right?" And she said, "Yes!"

I got down on her level physically and with eye contact and a calmer voice said, "Clay it's o.k. you're mad at me; I wish I could have explained it to you better, why I felt it was so important for the littler kids to be able to use the sled by themselves. I noticed that the little kids never get a chance to use the sleds because they are littler and not as quick to get a chance on the sleds when all the older children are faster to rush after the pile. I feld badly for the smaller children and now I feel badly that I didn't hear your side." Then I touched her arm and asked her to forgive me for getting so angry and ordering her off the sled like I did. She looked at me but said she still wasn't coming in. So I said, "O.K.," and just turned to walk in. I walked only a short distance when I looked back at her and

she was starting to go in. When we got to the door there was a lot of ice at the steps and I held my hand out to her which she took for support. When she took my hand she looked at me directly; the anger in her eyes mostly gone. I smiled at her, feeling a sense of gratitude for her accepting my hand.

Analysis:

I achieved my goal in the sense that I changed Clay's behavior but this was not done without damage to the relationship with the child.

Reasons for the damage:

In verbal communication my first approach (stating the problem to Clay that the younger kids didn't have a chance to sled and why) was good. But, following this statement immediately with a request, I failed to leave the problem in the hands of the children and I became more than a mediator; I became a judge. I believe that's why Clay answered me with her defense–"We had it first." She must have felt that I hadn't allowed for her point of view in the solution. After my hesitation I again verbalized another solution to the problem and the younger child's reply to this showed me again that I failed to find out and listen to all points of view. All my solutions failed mainly because I hadn't acted as a mediator who would find out just what exactly everyone's needs were and then restate them all and ask the children themselves for possible solutions. The frustration in me just mounted and at this point I should have stopped and taken another look at myself and the children involved but I let my own feelings rule me and began to use my power as "an older and bigger kid" to coerce Clay and Kristen into getting off the sled.

I realized the damage done when Clay walked off so full of anger. My approach then changed by letting her know that I understood her anger at me and then just explained why my feelings were as they were. I didn't patch up the damage with this but I did achieve eye contact. I felt it was important that I offered her my hand at the door because my feelings at this point were, "I'm sorry I related without respect for you." But I had already verbally communicated this and this added non-verbal communication appeared to show a greater expression of this.

What I learned in the communication:

1. *Before dealing with two groups of children in conflict—deal with all points of view.*
2. *Children should be left to themselves in many problem solvings.*
3. *I have to work on the role as mediator.*
4. *When frustration becomes great in me I should not continue to try and deal with problem solving until I calm myself down.*
5. *Non-verbal communication often means much more or is a needed addition in dealing with children.*